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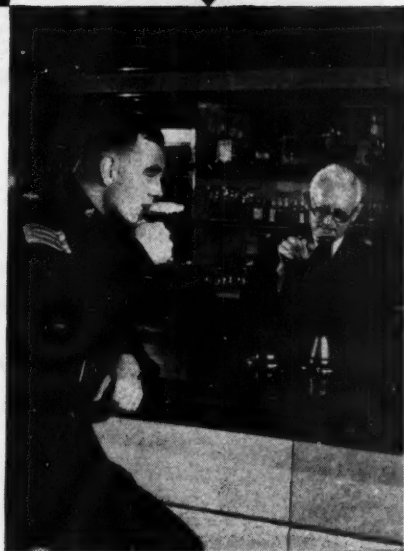
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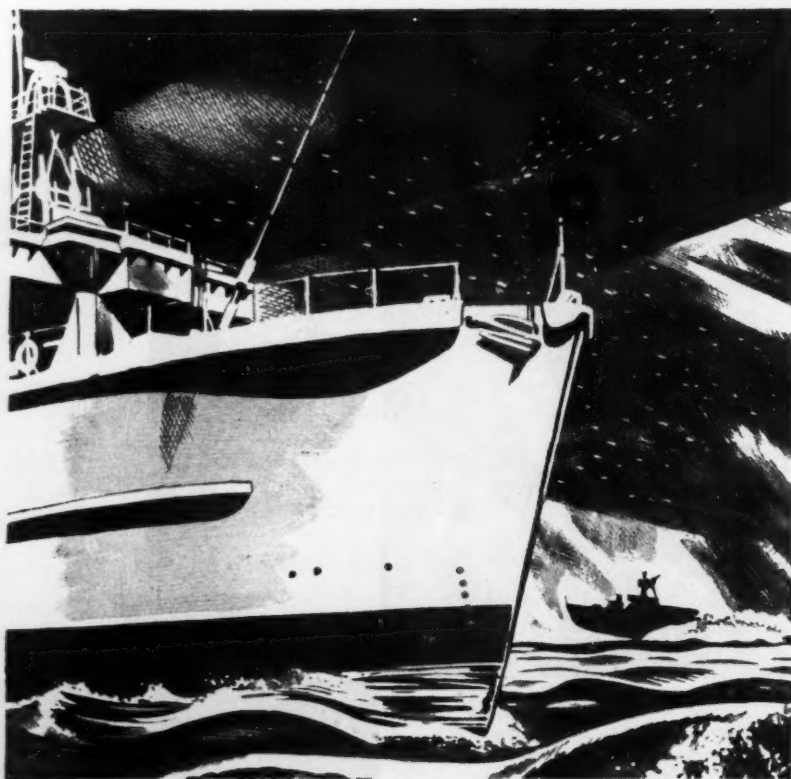
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Commissioned officers on the active and retired lists of all H.M. Services, including those of the Dominions and Colonies, also midshipmen of the Royal and Dominion Navies, the R.N.R., R.N.V.R., and R.N.V.S.R. are eligible for membership without formality.

Retired officers of the Regular and Auxiliary forces, including the Home Guard, whose names no longer appear in the official lists, are eligible for membership by ballot.

Ladies whose names appear or have appeared in the official lists as serving or having served as officers in any of the three Services are eligible as above.

Naval, military, and air force cadets at the Service colleges are eligible on the recommendation of their commanding officers.

Officers' messes are not eligible for membership, but may subscribe to the JOURNAL.

SUBSCRIPTION

The rates of subscription are :—

	£	s.	d.
Annual subscription	1	10	0
Life subscription	24	0	0
or four yearly instalments of	6	6	0 each
Covenanted life subscription—seven yearly instalments of	3	12	0 "

Full particulars of membership with alternative forms for bankers' orders, and for deeds of covenant enabling the Institution to recover income tax, can be obtained on application to the Secretary, Royal United Service Institution, Whitehall, S.W.1.

The JOURNAL is published in February, May, August, and November. Copies may be purchased by non-members, price 10s. od.: annual subscription, £2 post paid. Orders should be sent to the Secretary, Royal United Service Institution, Whitehall, S.W.1.

MUSEUM

The R.U.S. Museum is open daily from 10 a.m. to 5 p.m., except on Sundays, Christmas Day, and Good Friday. Members may obtain free passes for their friends on application to the Secretary.

Members of the Services in uniform are admitted free.

SECRETARY'S NOTES

February, 1955

ANNIVERSARY MEETING

The Anniversary Meeting will be held at 3 p.m. on Tuesday, 8th March, 1955. The Council will present their Annual Report and Accounts, and there will be an election to fill vacancies on the Council. Copies of the Annual Report and Accounts for 1954 can be obtained on application to the Secretary.

The Council have unanimously awarded the Chesney Gold Medal to Sir Arthur Bryant, C.B.E., LL.D., and the presentation of this medal will be made at the Meeting.

COUNCIL

Representative Member

Lieut.-General Sir A. James H. Cassels, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., has accepted the Council's invitation to serve as the War Office Representative on his appointment as Director-General of Military Training, vice Lieut.-General Sir Colin B. Callander, K.B.E., C.B., M.C.

CHAIRMAN'S LETTER

A letter from Admiral of the Fleet Sir Arthur J. Power, Chairman of the Council, to all Members of the Institution is enclosed in this JOURNAL.

NEW MEMBERS

The following officers joined the Institution between 27th October, 1954, and 18th January, 1955 :—

NAVY

Commander J. E. Pope, R.N.
Commander J. K. Laughton, R.N.
Lieutenant A. N. H. Weekes, R.N.
Commander B. C. Moth, M.B.E., R.N.
Surgeon Commander J. J. Keevil, D.S.O., M.D., F.S.A., F.R.Hist.S., R.N. (retd.).
Lieut.-Colonel G. W. Wilson, R.M.
Lieutenant-Commander (S) B. S. Mallory, R.N.
Lieutenant-Commander R. B. Fairthorne, R.N.
Lieutenant-Commander W. S. Blandy, R.C.N.
Lieutenant (E) J. M. Whyte, R.N.
Sub-Lieutenant D. Pentreath, R.N.
Sub-Lieutenant P. J. E. Bisset, R.N.

ARMY

Lieutenant J. O. G. Paton, 1st King's Dragoon Guards.
Captain R. G. A. Houston, The Gordon Highlanders, T.A.
Lieut.-Colonel F. W. G. Benemy, R.A.O.C.
Lieutenant J. R. G. Comyn, The Gordon Highlanders, T.A.R.O.
Lieutenant S. A. Green, The Bedfordshire & Hertfordshire Regiment.
Major E. Sedgwick, R.A.S.C.
Captain I. A. D. Gordon, The Royal Scots Fusiliers.
Captain G. Pressey, Royal Engineers.
Captain J. M. Kelsall, R.A.S.C.
Lieut.-Colonel R. G. Lees, M.B.E., late The Gordon Highlanders.
Major W. D. Gibson, Welsh Guards.
Lieut.-Colonel A. J. Morris, O.B.E., M.C., The Royal Irish Fusiliers, T.A.
Captain B. N. F. Bright, 22nd (Cheshire) Regiment, A.C.F., T.A.
Captain M. E. Tickell, M.C., Royal Engineers.

SECRETARY'S NOTES

Captain P. H. B. O'Meara, The East Lancashire Regiment.
 Major W. H. R. Llewellyn, M.C., Welsh Guards.
 Major N. H. Gibb, 1st King's Dragoon Guards.
 Major H. G. N. Gore, The Royal Ulster Rifles.
 Colonel H. S. Jervis, M.C., late The Royal Munster Fusiliers.
 Officer Cadet B. Mollo.
 2nd Lieutenant R. N. Orr, Royal Engineers.
 Lieutenant C. R. H. Wells, R.A.S.C.
 Captain J. J. M. Horlick, Coldstream Guards.
 Captain A. C. Marles, Royal Engineers.
 Brigadier A. E. Brocklehurst, D.S.O.
 Major C. G. Duffin, M.C., late Royal Artillery.
 Brigadier G. W. Auten.
 Lieut.-Colonel G. M. Dinwiddie, T.D., The King's Own Scottish Borderers.
 Lieut.-Colonel J. A. Simons, J.P., R.A.M.C.
 Lieutenant C. I. B. Cox, R.A.O.C.
 2nd Lieutenant M. S. Collins, Royal Artillery.
 Major E. O'Ballance, The Sherwood Foresters, T.A.
 Lieut.-Colonel I. W. S. Grey, The Hertfordshire Regiment, T.A.
 Brigadier G. A. Rimbault, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.
 2nd Lieutenant R. E. G. Sachs, The King's Shropshire Light Infantry.
 Major-General N. P. H. Tapp, C.B.E., D.S.O.
 Captain T. J. C. Washington, M.C., 12th Royal Lancers.
 Captain Jogindar Jit Nayar, Indian Army.
 Major G. L. Parker, late Royal Artillery.
 Lieutenant A. I. S. J. Scott, The Fife and Forfar Yeomanry, T.A.
 Lieut.-Colonel D. L. M. Standage, late The Royal Fusiliers.
 Brigadier A. J. R. M. Leslie.
 Lieutenant F. S. Dowe, R.C.O.C.
 Major W. K. Hedley, M.B.E., 4th Queen's Own Hussars.
 Major St. J. C. Brooke-Johnson, The Worcestershire Regiment.
 Colonel T. A. Martin, M.B.E., late The Essex Regiment.
 Major J. T. R. Prestige, The Buffs, T.A.
 Colonel S. W. Walsh, late R.A.S.C.

AIR FORCE

Air Commodore H. J. Kirkpatrick, C.B.E., D.F.C.
 Squadron Leader W. E. Colahan, D.F.C., R.A.F.
 Pilot Officer D. C. E. England, R.A.F.
 Flight Lieutenant P. A. Daniell, R.A.F.
 Squadron Leader H. G. Scilley, R.A.F.
 Squadron Leader B. P. T. Horsley, A.F.C., R.A.F.
 Squadron Leader J. Culliford, R.A.F.

PRIZE MEMBERSHIP

Acting Sub-Lieutenant N. R. Boivin, R.C.N., and Pilot Officer D. J. Hollis, R.A.F., have been awarded five years' free membership of the Institution.

COVENANTED SUBSCRIPTIONS

The Council hope that many more members will support the scheme for covenanted subscriptions, details of which have been circulated to all members.

This materially assists the Institution because it enables income tax at the full current rate to be reclaimed on each subscription. It is emphasized that a Deed of Covenant entails no additional expense to the member, but it goes a long way towards

meeting the increased essential costs of administration. The Council wish to thank the many members who have re-covenanted since the beginning of the year.

To date, there are 1,270 annual and 240 life covenanted members.

Any member who has not received his copy of the scheme or who requires new forms is requested to communicate with the Secretary.

LIAISON OFFICERS

With the object of making the facilities afforded by membership of the Institution better known to the Services, the Council have invited the principal Commands at home and overseas to nominate Liaison Officers.

It is hoped that the Liaison Officers will be able to suggest, from time to time, ways in which the Institution can be of greater value to the serving officer.

Liaison officers are provided with particulars of the Institution and forms to enable them to enrol members without further formality.

The following is a list of officers who have been nominated as Liaison Officers, and the Commands or Establishments they represent :—

<i>Establishment or Command</i>	<i>Name</i>
Amphibious Warfare Headquarters	Lieut.-Colonel B. N. L. Ditmas, M.B.E., R.A.
Joint Services Staff College ...	Major P. E. C. Tuckey.
British Joint Services Mission, Washington.	Lieut.-Colonel I. R. Ferguson-Innes.

ROYAL NAVY

Home Fleet Commander A. D. Bulman, R.N.
Flag Officer Air (Home) Lieut.-Commander M. L. Y. Ainsworth, R.N.
Flag Officer, Scotland Commander J. S. H. Lawrence, R.N.
H.M.S. <i>Excellent</i> Commander R. J. L. Hammond, R.N.
H.M.S. <i>Dryad</i> Lieut.-Commander F. St. P. Woodhouse, R.N.
H.M.S. <i>Vernon</i> Lieut.-Commander M. L. Stacey, R.N.
Flag Officer, Submarines Captain A. R. Hezlet, D.S.O., D.S.C., R.N.
Reserve Fleet Lieut.-Commander T. G. Ridgeway, R.N.
R.N. Barracks, Chatham Commander G. H. Evans, R.N.
R.N. Barracks, Devonport <i>Vacant.</i>
R.N. Barracks, Portsmouth Lieut.-Commander T. S. Sampson, R.N.
R.N. College, Greenwich Major W. S. B. Gunn, M.C., R.A.
Portsmouth Group, R.M. Lieutenant F. C. Darwall, R.M.
Plymouth Group, R.M. Captain L. Wild, R.M.

ARMY

Anti-Aircraft Command Lieut.-Colonel R. G. Osborn.
Eastern Command Lieut.-Colonel W. C. Walker, D.S.O., O.B.E.
Northern Command Colonel G. S. Fillingham, M.C.
Northern Ireland District Major A. W. R. Currie.
Scottish Command Lieut.-Colonel G. L. Auret, O.B.E.
Southern Command Major G. B. Griffiths.
Western Command Major A. G. Evans.
East Africa Command Major J. H. Holmes.
Far East Land Forces Major H. R. Bestley.
B.A.O.R. Lieut.-Colonel J. E. T. Willes, M.B.E.
Staff College, Camberley Lieut.-Colonel F. W. Young, M.B.E.
Pakistan Military Academy, Kakul	Major O. U. Qasim.

ROYAL AIR FORCE

Bomber Command	Group Captain L. E. Giles, O.B.E., D.F.C., A.F.C.
Fighter Command	Squadron Leader B. T. Procter.
Coastal Command	Wing Commander P. A. Hughes, D.F.C.
Flying Training Command	...	Wing Commander S. G. Baggott, D.F.C.
Technical Training Command	...	Group Captain C. W. Dicken, C.B.E.
Transport Command	Wing Commander C. V. Winn, D.S.O., O.B.E., D.F.C.
Maintenance Command	Wing Commander O. Gradon, O.B.E.
Home Command	Air Commodore H. I. Cozens, C.B., A.F.C.
Far East Air Force...	...	Wing Commander C. N. Foxley-Norris, D.S.O.
Second Tactical Air Force...	...	Wing Commander J. Nightingale.

GOLD MEDAL AND TRENCH GASCOIGNE PRIZE

ESSAY COMPETITION, 1954

The following entries were received :—

- " Lighten our Darkness."
- " Too many cooks spoil the broth."
- " Arma virumque cano."
- " Prometheus."
- " Lest we forget."
- " Anima in amicis una."
- " There is always a farther horizon."
- " Cassius."
- " Essayons."
- " Quem perdere vult."
- " This scepter'd isle."
- " Tyranny, like hell, is not easily conquered."
- " Tria juncta in uno."
- " . . . not ready to get ready."
- " Tyele."
- " Meliora spectare."
- " Sentinel."
- " Virtutis fortuna comes."
- " Qui s'excuse, s'accuse."
- " Victory in peace."
- " Festina lente Bellona !"
- " Be ye also ready."
- " Parsimony is not economy."
- " Let us be doing, but let us be united in our doing."

GOLD MEDAL AND TRENCH GASCOIGNE PRIZE

ESSAY COMPETITION, 1955

Particulars of the current competition will be found in the leaflet in this JOURNAL.

MUSEUM

ADDITIONS

A scale model of the S.55 helicopter, 1953 (9656). Given by Westland Aircraft, Ltd.

An officer's full-dress helmet, Tower Hamlets Rifle Volunteers, 1900 (9657). Given by Major G. K. Strugnell, T.D.

Two water-colour paintings by R. Simkin depicting officers of the 3rd Punjab Cavalry and the 19th Bengal Lancers (Fane's Horse), both in review order, 1901 (9658-9). Purchased.

Six prints of various scenes in the locality of Whitehall, mid-XVIIIth Century (9661-6). Given by Mr. J. Wilmot.

A medallion struck to commemorate the services of Viscount Richard Molesworth, who saved the life of the Duke of Marlborough at the Battle of Ramillies, 23rd May, 1706 (9667). From the loan collection, now given by Mrs. Stuart Smith.

JOURNAL

Offers of suitable contributions to the JOURNAL are invited. Confidential matter cannot be used, but there is ample scope for professional articles which contain useful lessons of the recent war; also contributions of a general Service character, such as strategic principles, command and leadership, morale, staff work, and naval, military, and air force history, customs, and traditions.

The Editor is authorized to receive articles from serving officers, and, if found suitable, to seek permission for their publication from the appropriate Service Department.

Army officers are reminded that such articles must be accompanied by the written approval of the author's commanding officer.

CENTENARY

Readers will notice, no doubt, that the JOURNALS for 1955 are numbered as being part of Volume 100, and may assume therefrom that 1955 is the centenary of the JOURNAL. In fact, the first copy of the JOURNAL was dated July, 1857. The year 1957 is, therefore, the JOURNAL centenary. The discrepancy is due to incorrect numbering of volumes in 1883 and 1914.

The copy number of the JOURNAL has reached the present high figure because the number of copies published each year varied considerably in the early days and rose to one per month between 1891 and mid-1914.

CHANGES OF ADDRESS

Members are particularly requested to notify any permanent change of address.

Naval officers are strongly advised to keep the Institution informed of their address, as JOURNALS sent to them via C.W. Branch of the Admiralty are invariably greatly delayed.

As a serving officer is liable to frequent changes of station, it is better for such members to register either a permanent home or a bank address.

REPRINT OF LECTURE

To meet the demand for copies of the lecture *A Look Through a Window at World War III* given by Field-Marshal The Viscount Montgomery of Alamein in October, 1954, a reprint has been made. These are available at 3s. a copy, post paid.

LECTURE PROGRAMME

The lecture on "Allied Naval and Air Commands in the Mediterranean" by Admiral The Earl Mountbatten of Burma, K.G., P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., K.C.B., D.S.O., will now be given on Wednesday, 30th March, at 3 p.m. instead of 6th April.

It is desirable to emphasize that the lecturer will be speaking in his capacity as the late Commander-in-Chief, Mediterranean.



FLIGHT REFUELLING
THREE R.A.F. METEORS ABOUT TO REFUEL FROM A U.S.A.F. B-29 TANKER

THE JOURNAL

of the

Royal United Service Institution

Vol. C.

FEBRUARY, 1955.

No. 597.

THE NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION

By GENERAL THE LORD ISMAY, P.C., G.C.B., C.H., D.S.O., D.L.

On Friday, 5th November, 1954, at 3 p.m.

ADMIRAL OF THE FLEET THE EARL OF CORK AND ORRERY, G.C.B., G.C.V.O.,
in the Chair

THE CHAIRMAN: It would be a farce for me to go through the usual introduction of our speaker to-day, for Lord Ismay is personally known to a great number and known by reputation to all in this hall.

The subject which he will speak to us about is one that must interest every military officer and every intelligent person who tries to follow foreign affairs. I shall not waste any more of your time, but will call upon General Lord Ismay.

LECTURE

THE North Atlantic Treaty Organization—commonly called N.A.T.O.—is generally taken for granted: but on my visits to the 14 countries which I serve—shortly to be 15, we hope—I have found that some of the best informed people have very little idea of what the Organization consists of or how it works. I propose, therefore, with the approval of the Council of the R.U.S.I., and at the risk of boring many of you who know N.A.T.O. inside out, to treat my subject on elementary lines, and to concentrate on organization rather than policy. I am, in fact, going to explain the diagram.¹

I realize that this will be disappointing to many of you, who probably expected that I would talk about the historic agreements which were signed in Paris a fortnight ago, and which resulted in an invitation to the Federal Republic of Germany to join N.A.T.O. So may I add that I will be very happy to try to answer any questions about those developments which may be put to me at the end of my lecture.

ORIGIN OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY

Let me first recall, very briefly, why and when N.A.T.O. came into being. As soon as the war in Europe was over, the United States, Great Britain, and Canada hastened to withdraw their forces from Europe as fast as they could. On VE-Day, 1945, there were over 3,000,000 American troops in Europe; a year later, there were 400,000. On that same day, there were 1,600,000 British troops; a year later, there were 500,000. On that same day, there were 300,000 Canadian troops in Europe; a year later, not a man was left. Meanwhile, the Soviets kept vast armies on a war footing and their armament industries going at full blast.

¹ See diagram facing page 10.

Nevertheless, the western world, trusting—too trusting—did their utmost to reach an accommodation with their late Allies. But conference after conference broke down owing to Soviet intransigence. They made the proceedings of the United Nations a farce by the use of the veto. They started a campaign of slander and lies against the whole of the western world; and worst of all, and most significant of all, they got under their control, one by one, the countries of eastern Europe by a curious process of conquest without war. The Communist coup in Prague in 1948, in a country in which there was not a Communist majority, was the last straw. Here was one more victim dragged behind the Iron Curtain.

It became obvious that unless something was done to restore the balance of military and economic power, there was no reason why the States of western Europe should not also be gobbled up, one by one. But how was this to be done? No single nation could do it alone. It could only be done by combining. It was in that dark hour that the North Atlantic Treaty was conceived and signed.

TERMS OF THE TREATY

By the terms of that Treaty, 12 countries, later to be joined by Greece and Turkey, agreed that they would consider an attack upon one or more of them in Europe or North America as an attack upon them all. Thus, no aggressor could hope to get away with Hitler's technique of devouring his victims one by one.

Secondly, the member countries agreed to build up their individual and collective defences—I repeat the word collective—to resist aggression.

These were pledges which called for immediate and continuous collective action. In order to translate promise into performance, the first essential was to set up the necessary collective machinery.

Here was an entirely novel problem for which there were no precedents.

The founders of the Treaty were wise in their generation. They did not attempt to draw up a blue-print of the Organization, or to lay down hard and fast rules. They realized that these could be evolved only in the light of experience, and they provided accordingly.

After three years of patient research and prolonged discussions by technical experts and committees innumerable, after much trial and many errors, the organization depicted in my diagram was brought into being. Before describing it I want to make it clear that I do not suggest that the arrangements are final: on the contrary, I am sure that they can, and will, be improved. But it can at least be claimed for N.A.T.O. in its present shape that it is coherent and business-like, and that it has achieved practical results.

THE CIVIL STRUCTURE

At the summit of the Organization is the North Atlantic Council. This is in effect an international Cabinet for N.A.T.O. affairs. It has a curious composition. It is a Council of 14 Governments, and not of 14 individuals, and Governments may be represented at the Council table by anyone they depute for the purpose.

In practice, they are represented at ministerial sessions by their Foreign Ministers and/or their Defence Ministers and/or their Finance Ministers. But, obviously, ministerial sessions must be few and far between (say twice a year or so—this year three in view of special problems of German accession), since Ministers have their own jobs to do in their own countries.

On the other hand, the work of the Council is, and must be, continuous: there is, as I will show, any amount of day-to-day business to be transacted. Therefore, to ensure continuity and also to enable the Council to meet at very short notice in the event of emergency, each country has a permanent representative resident in Paris with the rank of ambassador. Of the present permanent representatives, two are Cabinet Ministers in their own countries, one (the American) is a business executive, and the rest are, I believe, diplomats *de carrière*—generally very senior ones.

Thanks to this arrangement, the Council meets regularly once or twice a week for the transaction of current business, just as a national Cabinet does; while the many committees which have been set up, on all of which all 14 countries are represented, and the International Staff, on which all 14 countries are also represented, are at work day in and day out all the year round.

May I emphasize two points. The first is that the Council has effective powers of decision, irrespective of whether Governments are represented by Ministers or by permanent representatives. Thus, there is no need to summon Ministers from the ends of the earth whenever there is a very important problem to settle.

The second point is that the Council has no supra-national authority. There is no question of a majority vote, by which one or more Governments could be compelled to subscribe to anything with which they do not agree. All the decisions of the Council have to be unanimous. Nor is there any question of big countries or small countries, rich countries or poor countries. Each and every one of them are independent sovereign states, although they have, so to speak, pooled their sovereignty to a certain extent. Naturally, it often takes time to reconcile the different national view-points, but there has never yet been failure to reach agreement on any question that has been brought up. The climate of opinion is a potent force.

As you will see from the diagram, I myself have a dual role. I am Vice-Chairman of the Council and preside over all meetings at which the Ministerial Chairman is not present. I am also Secretary-General in charge of the International Staff which serves it. As I have already said, all 14 countries are represented on this staff: but none of us regard ourselves as nationals of our own countries. We lean over backwards in order not to favour our own land.

To judge from the number of applications I receive, there is an impression abroad that the staff is a very large one. In point of fact, I have less than 200 officers all told; most of them technical experts in one line or another.

So much for the organization of N.A.T.O. on the civil side. Before explaining what it does, let me describe the military set-up in very general terms.

THE MILITARY STRUCTURE

First, there is the Military Committee which consists of representatives of the Chiefs of Staff of all member countries—except Iceland which has no military forces. This Committee can only meet occasionally, since, obviously, Chiefs of Staff must reside alongside their own Governments. Moreover, so large a Committee is clearly not suitable for day-to-day work. It was for this reason that a three member executive agency was set up. This is called the Standing Group. It is in permanent session in Washington, and is composed of representatives of the Chiefs of Staff of France, the U.K., and the U.S., or when appropriate a Chief of Staff from each of these countries. The Standing Group is served by a number of staff teams drawn from France, the U.K., and the U.S. The Standing Group is, broadly speaking, responsible for overall strategy.

In order to ensure on the one hand that all member nations not represented on the Standing Group are kept in close touch with its work, and on the other hand that the Standing Group itself is kept informed of the points of view of those other nations, there has been established in Washington a permanent organization entitled the Military Representatives Committee. This consists of the three members of the Standing Group and one member from each of the other member countries.

The link between the North Atlantic Council in Paris and the Standing Group in Washington is provided by a Standing Group Liaison Officer, who works in the same building in Paris as the International Staff. The S.G.L.O. is assisted by a staff of about 16 naval, army, and air force officers drawn from the member countries. So much for what I might call the high military command.

On the next level are the Commanders: Supreme Allied Command Europe, with its headquarters near Paris; Supreme Allied Command Atlantic, with headquarters at Norfolk, Virginia; and the Channel commands. In time of peace, these Commanders are responsible, under the general guidance and co-ordination of the Military Committee and Standing Group for the preparation of plans to meet the contingency of aggression. In time of war, they would be responsible for the overall conduct of all operations in their command areas.

The Supreme Commanders are served by Allied staffs drawn from all the member nations whose forces have been assigned to their commands in time of peace or earmarked for their commands in time of war.

One of the most remarkable features of the coalition is that member Governments have entrusted their precious armed forces to the command of a national other than their own in time of peace. Such a thing has never been done before in the history of the world. Thanks to this arrangement, these forces, as you know from the JOURNAL of the R.U.S.I., are constantly exercised in international manoeuvres; and it is a joy to see how intimate is their co-operation. A British admiral told me at the end of some international manoeuvres, well over a year ago, that he had had a flotilla of destroyers working under him—one British, one French, one Dutch, and one Belgian, and that they had manoeuvred at night at high speed in dirty weather as though they had always served under the same flag. "The N.A.T.O. Navy," he said, "is no longer a dream, but a reality."

I have not time today to deal with the military set-up in greater detail, but I venture to suggest that at some future date the Council of the R.U.S.I. might think it useful to arrange a lecture devoted primarily to that topic.

WORK OF THE COUNCIL

ANNUAL REVIEW

I now turn to a general description of the work on which N.A.T.O. is engaged. Its most important, and certainly its most laborious, task is the determination each year of the size and pattern of the build-up of the armed forces of the coalition. The process goes on all the year round. As soon as one year's grind is finished, as it will be next month for 1955, the grind for the next year starts.

You all know what an intricate, long-drawn-out job it is to decide upon a national defence programme for a single nation. How much can the country afford? How much is to go to the Army, how much to the Navy, how much to the Air Force? What priority is to be given to modernization? What proportion of money is to be devoted to the accumulation of the necessary reserves of equipment? So you can

imagine what a jig-saw puzzle it is to decide on 14 different programmes which have to be dovetailed into each other.

If you were to leave it to each individual member to decide upon his own contribution, without reference to what was being done by the others, you would get heterogeneous, unbalanced, and ineffective forces. Therefore, the closest co-ordination is essential at every stage and in every detail.

The first step is a perfectly normal one. It is to decide upon the overall strategic concept. The original decision on this point was that all N.A.T.O. territory must be defended. This decision is reviewed every year, but it has remained constant. It has always been called 'the forward strategy,' though I myself do not much like the term, since it might convey the idea of aggression. That is the last thought that ever enters our minds, much less our calculations.

The next step is to determine the broad policy which should govern the build-up. In the beginning, the armed forces of the Allies were so tiny that it was decided to increase them at the maximum speed at almost any cost. In other words, priority was given to numbers. That was in the days of Lisbon—early 1952. By the end of last year, it became apparent that the limit of national expenditures on defence had almost been reached. (Defence estimates have increased progressively in every country each year since the Alliance started.) It was therefore decided that the future policy should be to proceed on the basis of what is called 'the long haul,' i.e., a steady development of defensive strength at a rate which would preserve, and not exhaust, the economic strength of the partners. It was also apparent that the forces were getting out of balance, and it was decided to give priority to quality rather than to quantity, i.e., to make existing units more effective rather than increase their number.

With this political guidance as a background, the military authorities make their estimates each year of their total requirements for the discharge of their responsibilities. Obviously these requirements can never be satisfied immediately and in full: so the next step is to reconcile them with the political and economic capabilities of the various nations, and to determine priorities as to what is to be provided at once and what must wait till later. All member countries are asked for their proposals, and these are examined and analysed first by the International Staff and then by all the partners together. During this cross-examination, it may be suggested to a country that they ought to be doing a little more all round, or perhaps that it could conduce to the general efficiency of the coalition as a whole if their contribution took a different form in one respect or another. They might, for example, be told that their ammunition reserves were dangerously low and that these should be replenished, perhaps at the cost of something less militarily vital.

The ultimate result of all this research and discussion is the determination of goals for the annual build-up of the military forces of the coalition which are within the political and economic capabilities of all the Governments, and which are accepted by them as national commitments. At the same time as deciding upon definite goals for the current year, the Council also decides upon provisional goals for the following year and planning goals for the year after that. These are not hard and fast commitments. Their purpose is to provide a basis for planning on a long-term basis.

It is extraordinary, when you come to think of it, that countries should be prepared not only to lay the details of their national, military, production, and fiscal programmes before their partners, but also to be cross-questioned upon them. Never has the principle of alliance been carried to such a pitch.

INFRASTRUCTURE

In parallel with the build-up of the armed forces, goes the build-up of infrastructure, that is to say the airfields, communications, fuel supply systems, radar warning equipment, and so forth upon which the operational efficiency of the armed forces must depend. Here is another major responsibility of the Council, and incidentally one of its major achievements.

First, there is the problem of finance. Since these installations are for common use, it would be unfair to expect the countries in which they are constructed to bear the whole cost. Consequently, this is divided up among the member partners on a proportionate basis. It took a lot of time and a lot of patience and a lot of hard bargaining to get agreement on these proportions: but it was done in the end. The total amount of money already voted or promised amounts to over £700,000,000.

But the Council's work is not finished when the money has been provided. It is their duty to see that the various installations are planned and constructed, not only according to the standards required by the military authorities, but also with the utmost economy. Consequently, the International Staff experts exercise the closest technical and financial scrutiny at every stage.

To bear out my suggestion that the achievements in infrastructure have been impressive, might I quote the single example of airfields. When General Eisenhower took over supreme command in Europe just over three years ago, there were 15 airfields available to him; now there are 127, usable by all types of aircraft.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE COUNCIL

Of course, the Council has other financial responsibilities besides infrastructure. For example, all civilian personnel employed at N.A.T.O., such as the International Staff, and all the expense involved in the construction and maintenance of office buildings, etc., are paid for out of a common budget. The total expenditure involved is relatively small, but it is one of the less attractive jobs of the Council to decide how it is to be apportioned between the various partners each year.

Let me add that all the budget estimates and all expenditures are closely watched by the Budget Committee of the Council, on which all 14 countries are represented. Those of you who have suffered from the vigilance of the Treasury watchdog may be thankful that you have not got 14 of them! As an extra check, there is an international board of auditors reporting direct to the Council.

OTHER RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE COUNCIL

Now let me turn to another aspect of the work of N.A.T.O. All the members are, as I have said, pledged to maintain and develop their individual and collective capacity to resist aggression. To redeem that pledge, they must, in addition to building up their armed forces, take all possible steps to ensure that in the event of aggression, the home fronts will stand the strain. One of the most obvious of these steps is Civil Defence, and the Council is working hard at this problem. Civil Defence is, of course, a national responsibility, but the Council can do a good deal by way of stimulation, suggestion, co-ordination, and exchange of information and experience.

Then there is the question of the morale of the peoples of the North Atlantic Community. You will never get high morale unless the average man and woman knows the reason for the sacrifices and exertions that are demanded of them, are

satisfied that their affairs are being sensibly managed, and have confidence in their Allies. In other words, the education of the peoples of all the 14 countries as to the purposes and progress of N.A.T.O. is one of the first duties of the Council. We are working very hard at it ; but a lot more money would be required to make a good job of it.

Another direction in which the Council is active is what I might call the field of preparation for the emergency of war. We know that if, unhappily, it should break out, it would be necessary to ensure that the available shipping, inland transport, and supplies of various commodities, such as food, fuel, etc., should be apportioned between the Allies to the best advantage of the Alliance as a whole. Obviously, hard and fast plans cannot be made in advance of the emergency, but there can be no doubt that the researches that are being conducted and the general discussions which are taking place would be invaluable if the need were to arise.

The Council is a forum for the exchange of views on political questions of common concern. Let me give you a concrete example. The three members who are representatives of the occupying Powers in Germany—France, the United Kingdom, and the United States—exchanged views with their 11 colleagues on the Council before the Four Power Conference of Foreign Ministers was held in Berlin early in 1954. Moreover, throughout the course of the Conference, those three Governments made it their business to see that their partners in N.A.T.O. were kept informed of what was happening. Similarly, the Council as a whole had had discussions on the Soviet Note of the 31st March, 1954, to the three occupying Powers, which included, *inter alia*, the astonishing suggestion that the Soviet Government were ready "to consider jointly with the interested Governments the question of the participation of the U.S.S.R. in the North Atlantic Treaty." The views put forward by the other N.A.T.O. Governments were taken fully into account by those of France, the United Kingdom, and the United States in drafting their reply.

The Council is anxious to develop this practice of political consultation, and it passed a formal resolution at the ministerial meeting last September calling on all member Governments to bear constantly in mind the desirability of bringing to the attention of the Council information on international political developments whenever they are of concern to other members of the Council.

SUMMARY OF ACCOMPLISHMENTS

To sum up the broad accomplishments of N.A.T.O. in the five years since the Treaty was signed. A Council in permanent session, with effective powers of decision, meeting once, twice, or even thrice a week—at half an hour's notice if need be : an International Staff on which all 14 countries are represented: a cordial and explicitly recognized relationship between the civil and military powers : a joint military organization with a network of commands covering the North Atlantic Ocean and the European Continent from the North Cape to North Africa, and from the Channel to the Caucasus Mountains : a shield of armed forces, not yet strong enough to resist an all out attack, but, according to the Supreme Commander in Europe, sufficiently strong not to be overcome by the forces which the Soviet at present maintain outside Russia proper : impressive achievements in infrastructure, and so forth.

These are noteworthy achievements, but there is an even more valuable achievement—namely the astonishing degree of unity which has already been reached. You see it everywhere.

A visitor to the N.A.T.O. Defence College in Paris will see groups of officers of eight or ten different nations working in the same syndicate and lunching together afterwards, learning each other's viewpoints and making friendships that will endure for a life-time.

There is the same atmosphere at the Supreme Headquarters, Allied Powers Europe. General Gruenther recently said: "In my 35 years of service I have been in many headquarters, but I have never had experience with a happier one than S.H.A.P.E."

A visit to the international manoeuvres which go on practically the whole year round all over the N.A.T.O. area is an encouraging experience. Were it not for the difference in uniforms, one might think that the armed forces of all these different nations had always served under the same flag.

On the civil side, no member of the International Staff regards himself as a national of his own country. They all regard themselves, with pride, as members of an international team dedicated to the service of the North Atlantic Alliance as a whole.

FUTURE OF THE ALLIANCE

We are now entering upon a difficult phase. The military danger may appear to have receded. The Soviet will continue to do their utmost to divide us. The longer a man carries a load, the heavier it seems to become; and all the member nations have been carrying a heavy load of defence expenditure for a long time. Nevertheless, the threat remains and may long persist. Our policies must be adopted to this basic fact. It would be a mockery of all the exertions and sacrifices that have been made if we were now to be complacent, or to relax, or, worse still, to fall apart. We are on the right road; our fate is in our own hands. If we are true to ourselves and to each other, and if we remain united as we are today, all will be well.

DISCUSSION

LIEUT-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL: The lecturer has told us that he does not think that the danger of a shooting war is in recession at all, and we all know, of course, that the Soviet have huge forces and that we must make preparations and have forces to meet them. But the fact does remain that the Soviet have conquered half the world in population with hardly a casualty, and they have continued with this non-military offensive. Why should they, therefore, turn to a shooting war? We on our side are building up our forces, but we have no possibility of defeating Communism unless we also have a non-military offensive. We are doing absolutely nothing to prepare for a non-military offensive which is comparable with that which is being made by the Russians. Can our lecturer tell us anything about that?

THE LECTURER: I had some correspondence with the questioner on this topic about two years ago. The short answer is that it is left to individual Governments to decide what they should or should not do in the matter of the non-military offensive suggested by General Martel. N.A.T.O., as such, is not charged with any collective responsibility in this field.

LIEUT-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL: What I suggested was that plans should be made so that when we meet the Russian, who is an Asiatic and understands bargaining, we have something with which to bargain. We could prepare plans for a non-military offensive that would have a very serious effect on the Soviet. If the Soviet refused to stop their non-military offensive, we could threaten to put these plans into effect. That is the way to deal with the Soviet, and it would in no way increase the risk of a shooting war.

LIEUT.-COLONEL J. JELLEN: Does the lecturer think that there is any danger of the new organization set up under the Brussels Treaty becoming stronger in Europe to detriment of N.A.T.O.?

THE LECTURER: That is a very helpful question. No one yet knows what the set-up of the new Western European Organization will be. It was, however, emphasized in the agreements that there should be no overlap between the two organizations and, in particular, that W.E.U.O. should have no military establishments beyond an arms control agency. It is, as the questioner suggests, most undesirable that the ideal of a European Community should weaken the ideal of an Atlantic Community. In the latter lies our salvation and our hope. N.A.T.O. and W.E.U.O. must be complementary to each other, and not in competition with each other.

SQUADRON LEADER S. CURSETJEE: I should like to ask two questions. First of all, what is the span of the life of N.A.T.O.? In the event of war, what would be the fate of N.A.T.O.? Secondly, how does the Council of N.A.T.O., as well as its committees, deal with the problem of languages?

THE LECTURER: To answer the second question first, there are only two languages. No other languages are admitted other than English and French. Every paper is issued in both languages. There is at all public meetings simultaneous interpretation, so that those who are not familiar with both languages have only to put on the earphones.

So far as the first two questions are concerned, the span of life of N.A.T.O. is indefinite. As to the fate of N.A.T.O. in the event of war, no one can say in advance what form the organ of supreme direction will take. That is a matter which would have to be decided in the light of the then existing circumstances; just as has to be done in the case of an individual country. In Great Britain, for example, the Prime Minister has to decide on the outbreak of war whether he will get rid of his peace Cabinet and set up a small war Cabinet, or what other special arrangements are necessary. The uncertainty as regards the exact future of N.A.T.O. is increased by the fact that in the event of war, N.A.T.O. would almost certainly be joined by other nations who are not at present members of the club. At the same time, I would imagine that N.A.T.O. in some form or other would continue.

MAJOR R. G. HOGG: Is there any existing organization in N.A.T.O. for co-ordinating and building up Civil Defence in the 14 countries? In view of the tremendous and increasing importance of Civil Defence, it seems to me that we might have magnificent armies, navies, and air forces, but if the civil population collapse at the explosion of an atom bomb, it would be disastrous. I might add that I am in charge of one of the most important counties in Great Britain at the moment so far as Civil Defence is concerned.

THE LECTURER: The responsibility for Civil Defence naturally rests with individual Governments, but N.A.T.O. can do a good deal by way of stimulation, suggestion, and co-ordination. There has been an interchange of literature and publicity between all the member countries, so that those who have not had practical war experience of Civil Defence can profit from those who have. We have Sir John Hodsoll as Technical Adviser, and later this month Civil Defence experts from all the member countries are assembling in Paris for a three day conference. Nevertheless, it takes a long time to show any concrete progress. I myself get frustrated and impatient, but, having seen the delays that take place in the national field, I am not really too unhappy about the greater delays that take place in the international field.

LIEUT.-COLONEL CLIVE GARSIA: I believe that Lord Montgomery, at a meeting the other day, advised people not to start on Civil Defence as from the last war, because it is entirely different. During the last war, there was a large underground shelter near my house, and when the alarm sounded, people would hurry into it—but only on the first two or three occasions. An entirely different problem obtains to-day, and I wonder whether we could have some clarification of the sort of lines defence against atom bomb attack is expected to take.

THE LECTURER: I am afraid that I have not the technical knowledge to answer your question. I am not sure exactly what Lord Montgomery had in mind, but I should have thought that our object was to apply the experience of Civil Defence that we acquired in the last war to the new conditions, whatever they may be.

SUB-LIEUTENANT R. V. SINGH (I.N.): How does the South-East Asia Treaty Organization affect N.A.T.O.? Is there any liaison between the two?

THE LECTURER: There is as yet no South-East Asia Treaty Organization in the sense of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization illustrated in my diagram. The South-East Asia Treaty has been signed and the South-East Asia Council nominated, but there is as yet no secretariat or other form of permanent organization. When and if these are set up, I would imagine that the two Organizations would keep in close touch with each other.

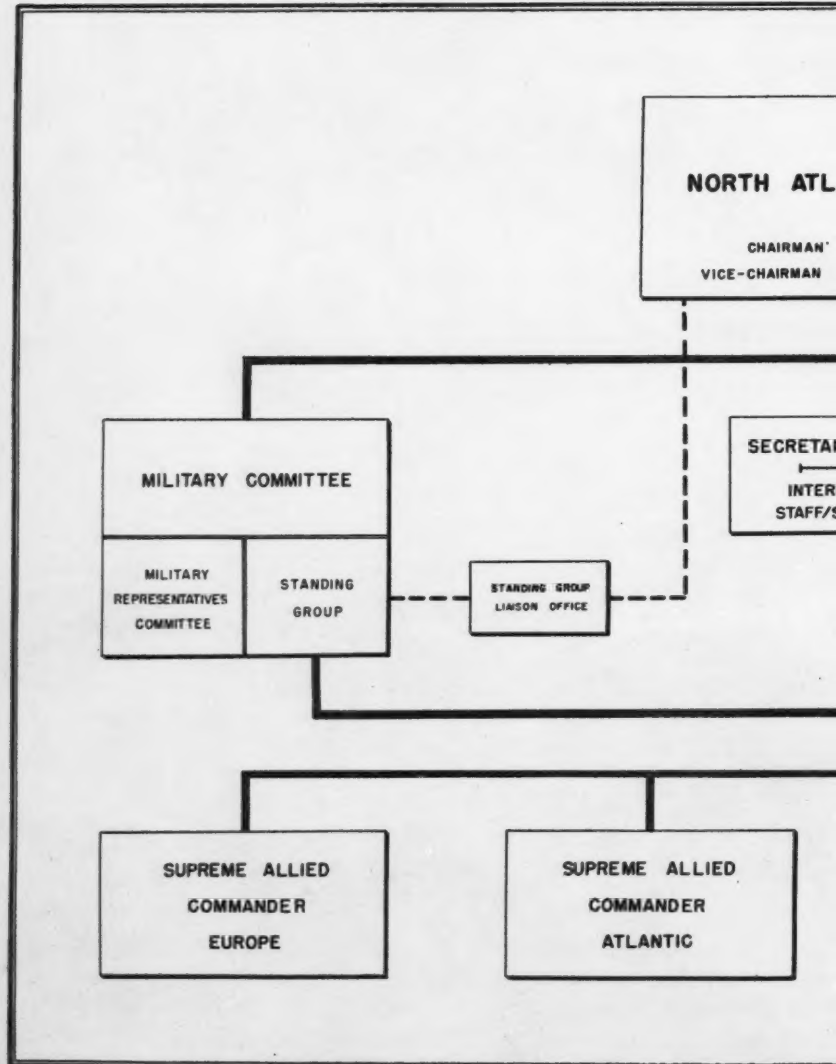
THE CHAIRMAN: In view of the fact that owing to a cold the lecturer had a weak voice, we have given him a dressing down! I feel that Lord Ismay has not only given us a most interesting lecture, but he is obviously the right man in the right place, and he has given us information. I should, therefore, like to thank him for giving us this lecture and sparing the time in a very short visit to London for the purpose. I am sure that the Council has taken a note of his promise to give a further lecture on the military set-up of N.A.T.O.!

I would add that, on behalf of this representative body of officers, we are extremely proud that one of our number should be occupying this international post, and we wish him continued and ever increasing success whilst he holds it. (*Applause.*)

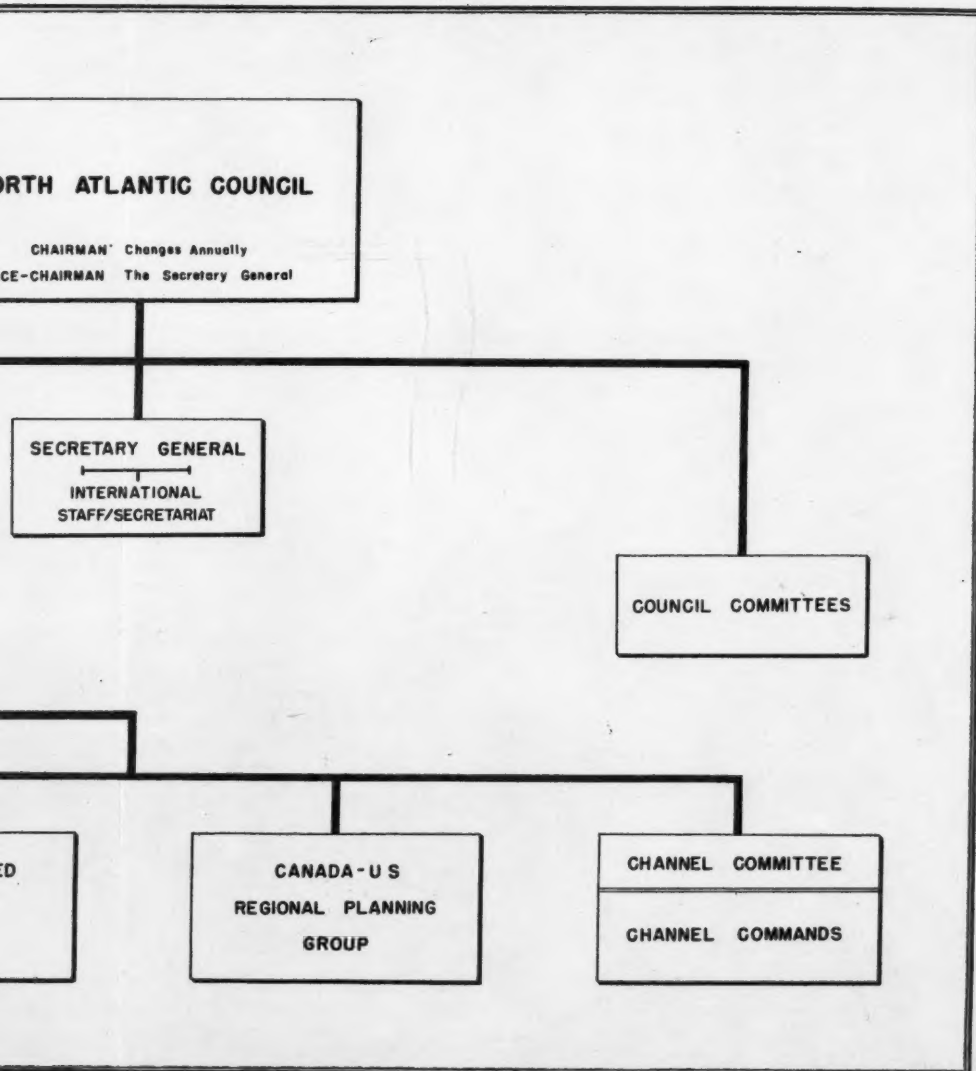


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APRIL, 1954



COMMUNISM

By PROFESSOR H. A. HODGES, M.A., D.Phil.

On Wednesday, 27th October, 1954, at 3 p.m.

AIR CHIEF MARSHAL SIR ARTHUR P. M. SANDERS, K.C.B., K.B.E., A.D.C., in the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: There is a long established and oft quoted military maxim which says "know your enemy". Now that war is carried on in a good many different fields and the impact of war is liable to be felt by a whole nation, civil population as well as the fighting forces, that precept applies, I suggest, in many other spheres besides the purely military.

The free world is already engaged in a struggle against militant Communism—a struggle that is against a Power which is inspired, dominated, and directed by an ideology, philosophy, and an economic theory, all of which differ fundamentally from our own. I would suggest, therefore, that it is very much to our advantage to understand this alien creed which inspires the enemies of the free world, and the better we understand it the better we shall be able to play our parts, great or small, in the struggle.

I imagine that it is probably in search of that greater knowledge and understanding that you have assembled here this afternoon. Having had the opportunity of hearing Professor Hodges speak before on the subject of Communism, I know of no one better able to explain the essence of the matter to us.

It therefore gives me very great pleasure to introduce Professor Hodges to you and to invite him to begin his address.

LECTURE

WHEN I was invited to come here and to speak on "Communism" I had not the slightest doubt that what was meant was militant Communism; that movement which inspires and directs the rulers of the Soviet Union and now also of China. That is my subject, and that movement is equally well known as "Marxism" because its founder was Karl Marx. Communism as a purely economic theory, Communism in the simple sense of a belief in the common ownership of property, is not here in question. It is the far vaster body of ideas, including the theory of common ownership but also much more, which Karl Marx put before the world, that we have to study.

A few weeks ago I happened to mention to someone that I had been speaking on Marxism, and I received the surprised reply: "Marxism? I thought that economists dealt with him!" This idea that Marxism is simply an economic theory is not merely false but it is dangerous. The purely economic side of Marxism is the least part of it. Marx's economic analysis, his predictions and his proposals, are set in a framework of far deeper principles, and it is not simply in the sphere of economics, but in a far deeper sphere, that the conflict between Marxism and our western view of things lies.

It used to be customary before the war to speak of that which was going on in Russia as the 'Russian experiment'. Again one might misinterpret that. One might take it as referring only to an experiment in economic organization, an experiment in running a vast continental society on the principle of common ownership, a thing which had never been attempted before. But the experiment in common ownership was only one part of a much vaster experiment.

If you look to see what the Russians themselves say and their friends over here echo, you will find them claiming that they are bringing into existence a new kind of society. They say that nothing less than a new kind of human being is being bred.

It is a claim that we should remember having heard before in connection with another great country, the United States of America. For in fact, if you think of it, you will find that the U.S.A. and the Russian Empire (now the U.S.S.R.) have a great deal in common. Both were founded by people spreading out from Europe, east and west, spreading pioneer fashion over the centuries into an apparently limitless expanse of forest and open prairie land; spreading out at the expense of uncivilized tribes until they came into contact with one another in the Pacific. It is largely the same story in both cases. But the Americans until very recently were the more vocal of the two. All through the XIXth Century they used to say that they had cut themselves off from the old world and were making a new kind of society with a new and 100 per cent. American way of life. Now in the XXth Century another clamorous voice is heard from Russia and it talks about the same thing—a new kind of society and with it a new kind of human being. That is a vast claim; it is far more than a mere change in economic methods; and it is the nature of that claim that we have to understand if we are to understand what it is about Communism that captures people, holds them, and makes them fanatical exponents of it, as so many of them are.

Marx claimed to have seen and pointed out the true meaning of the development of modern thought since the end of the middle age. I should not myself agree that he had in all respects rightly understood it or rightly judged it, but it is true that he represents one way of understanding the meaning of the modern world. Let us therefore begin by asking ourselves how the modern world does differ from the mediaeval world which preceded it. What is the big change that has come over our way of looking at things since the middle age? What did the world look like to mediaeval man?

The first thing about mediaeval European man was that he was a Christian. His Christianity was not an afterthought. He was not one who was first of all an Englishman, a public school man, or a Service man, and then added by way of a footnote that he was a member of the Church of England. His Christianity shaped his whole way of thinking. He might not always live up to it, but he could not get away from it. He saw the world as God's world, and himself and everything in the world as related to God. Think of man as standing at the point of intersection of two lines, a horizontal and a vertical, and let the horizontal line represent man's relation to the world around him—material things and other men—and let the vertical line represent man's relations with God. Mediaeval man was conscious that the vertical line was the more important of the two, and it is only if you understand the vertical dimension that you can properly understand the horizontal. It is only in terms of God upon Whom we all depend that we can understand our proper relation with one another.

The biggest change that has come about, it seems to me, since mediaeval times is that we have lost that sense of the vertical line—whether rightly or wrongly I shall not discuss, but we have very largely lost it. Many of our contemporaries believe that there is no vertical dimension at all, and that it was all a fantasy. Many more, without being so negative as this, regard the vertical dimension as a region of doubt and mystery.

Now, if you really believe in the vertical dimension as the mediaeval man did believe in it, it will of course take first place in your interests. But if you are doubtful about it, then your interest will centre upon something different. Your interest will centre on the world and upon society, the conquest of nature and the government of men, science, and politics. Those are the things which engross the mind of the typical modern man. The Marxist doctrine hinges upon these two things.

A second difference between the mediaeval and the modern mind will bring us closer to the heart of Marxism. To the mediaeval mind this world was God's world. That meant that it was designed and governed by supreme intelligence and supreme goodness, and that again meant that it was an orderly and harmonious world. Things were made so as to fit together in a marvellous order. For everything there was a place in this order, and everything was good and noble so long as it kept its proper place. Conflict and suffering were no original part of the design. They were the result of things getting out of place—as when man deserts his proper rank and descends to the level of a beast—and this was a blemish upon the world.

Now, in contrast with this, many modern philosophers have come to think of conflict as a good and not a bad thing. It is not the result of folly or corruption in the world, but part and parcel of the structure of things, and a factor which makes for progress. Indeed, we all know from experience that conflict can sometimes be creative. We even create artificial conflicts—games for instance—in order to obtain the stimulus which they can give. Modern thinkers have often generalized this and proclaimed it as a principle that conflict is the spring of life and progress throughout the world. From the opposition of positive and negative electric particles at the base of matter, as you rise to more and more complex forms of matter and up through the scale of life to man, on every level you find that this is the case. It is particularly interesting to study the relationship between man and nature and the relationship between man and man in this light.

Man stands in a peculiar relationship to nature, unlike any other animal. Man, like every other animal, is a child of nature. But whereas every other animal lives by adapting itself to the conditions of its environment, man in increasing measure adapts his environment to his own desires. Man, a child of nature, can set himself against nature and set himself to conquer it. In so doing he stands in a double relation to nature, at once masterful and dependent. All human action, economic, military, political, artistic, everything that men do, is done by exploitation of nature's resources, and we cannot do anything except with the power which nature provides, yet we use this power for our own purposes. We do this of course within limitations, and in the end nature always has the last word, when man dies. But while we live the whole of our life is a struggle between the human being and his world. There is a similar struggle going on among men themselves. Individual with individual, the individual with the group, and one group with another group, are in continual conflict and this conflict is the spring of progress, because out of it comes the stimulus to man's ingenuity, out of it comes the necessity which is the mother of invention.

This kind of creative struggle is what in Marx's language is called 'dialectic'. This word simply means that conflicts can come to an end in a fruitful union of the conflicting powers. The word 'dialectic' is borrowed from the ancient habit of conducting philosophical discussions in the form of a dialogue or debate between two people. For when two people start debating a philosophical, political, or religious question, they begin by standing fairly far apart, but the longer they continue the debate the nearer they come together and they end, if they have the time and patience, in a position which neither of them held at the outset but which contains the truth of both. Conflict thus leads to reconciliation; and that is 'dialectic'. 'Dialectical materialism', which is the official title of the philosophy of Marx, simply means that all nature works in that way; all nature, on every level, and that includes of course man himself as a product of nature and part of the whole. Thesis, antithesis, synthesis; disagreement, conflict, reconciliation; and from that reconciliation spring

another disagreement and another conflict and another reconciliation, and so on for ever. Such is the way of life.

In all these struggles we are led on, consciously or unconsciously, by one enduring purpose. This purpose, which gives all history its meaning, is the pursuit of freedom. But here we must pause for a moment and see what Marx means by this word 'freedom', for in his language it does not mean what it means in modern western usage. Here, in our western countries, when we speak of freedom we mean primarily the freedom of the individual, his enjoyment of civil rights, his immunity from arbitrary arrest, his power to shape his life as he thinks fit. The Marxist will agree that freedom means being able to shape one's life as one thinks fit, but he will add that this is just what the individual, left to himself, cannot do. The individual in his weakness is at the mercy of circumstances. It is only the human race all working together co-operatively who can be masters of their destinies. Human freedom can only be collective and the individual can only be free by being integrated into the life of the group. The Marxists in the so-called 'freedom-loving countries' see no inconsistency if, in order to integrate people more closely into the community, their civil liberties have to be curtailed.

All social institutions are to be seen and judged in the light of this pursuit of freedom. Economic systems which organize our exploitation of nature's resources, laws and political systems which organize our relations with one another with a view to peaceful co-operation—they all have their positive meaning and value in the contribution they make to the freedom of mankind. But now we come to another characteristically Marxist point. In the whole course of human endeavour, in economic, and social, and political life, in intellectual and cultural activities, we find ourselves subject to a law of constant self-frustration. The institutions which we create to secure our freedom turn out to fetter us in one way or another. Law, which exists to secure justice, often works unjustly. Government, instead of protecting its people, oppresses them. Religion, which professes to give meaning and dignity to human life, is well known to have a darker side, not least in the support which it often gives to oppressive laws and governments. The economic system, which exists to produce and distribute wealth to the people, becomes a means by which a few grow rich at the expense of the many. Most of all is this true—so says Marx—of the modern mechanized industrial system with its slums, its sweated labour, its recurrent unemployment. Under this system the workers collectively produce far more than workers ever produced before; but most of this new wealth is 'alienated' from those whose labour has produced it, and goes to enrich their exploiters. Poverty in the midst of plenty—here is the paradox of human frustration in its most striking form.

It is the constant problem of politics to avoid this frustration, to make our social activities and institutions give us their best and not their worst. Our ability to do this will depend on the level of our scientific knowledge and political skill. Past history shows that we have not been very successful. Nor shall we be until we can discover the root cause of the trouble and find a means of getting rid of it. Marx claims to have done this by means of his doctrine of 'historical materialism'.

Historical materialism means, in brief, that all that men think and do is conditioned and determined by the material circumstances of their lives. But we must understand this more precisely. By the material circumstances of men's lives Marx does not mean, for example, the climate in which they live or the kind of food they eat. Men are not the slaves of these things. Marx is thinking of the means of

production and distribution of wealth, the methods and techniques by which we provide ourselves with food, and all the other kinds of commodities which we desire for use or enjoyment. The techniques by which we obtain these things are the real basis of our whole social system. If we look for a moment at the economic history of the world we shall see how each of the main types of economy—food-gathering, hunting, pastoral, agricultural, industrial—has a characteristic social structure associated with it, and how every change in the techniques of production has brought with it a corresponding change in social relationships, habits, and ideas.

In the most primitive form of society, the small family group which lives by collecting berries or shellfish or the like, there is little need of organization. But when you pass to the tribe of hunters, already you will find organization, specialization, division of labour. There will be those who go hunting and those who stay at home; those who make the weapons and those who use them; and on the hunting expedition itself there will be team-work between some who drive the game and some who kill, with one to organize the whole. In agricultural societies the division of labour grows apace. Besides the elementary operations of ploughing, sowing, reaping, there will be the making of the various necessary tools, not to mention the business of watching the stars and keeping the calendar right. As population grows and material equipment improves there will be more and more special trades, together with merchants, judges, rulers, priests, soldiers, and so on. The point is that in every stage of development the way in which we produce our wealth determines the size and character of our social unit, the division of function within it, in short the whole social system. None of this is accidental, all of it arises from and reflects the production-techniques which are in use at that place and time.

Now a further point. Marx believes that the earliest societies were essentially Communist in form—that in so far as there was a store of wealth or of natural resources (such as land) it belonged to the community and was distributed to its members as was thought right. But as the social system becomes more complex, and certain positions emerge which are positions of leadership, like those of the king or the priest, those who occupy these leading positions gradually secure for themselves a special share of land and other forms of wealth, a share which grows until at last the land on which the community's life depends is wholly or almost wholly owned by a small privileged class instead of by the whole people. Such a privileged class is obviously in a position to dominate the rest of the community, to determine their conditions of work and life, and to draw off the major part of the wealth which they produce into its own possession. And so we get the phenomenon of class exploitation. In an agricultural economy it is primarily the landowners who are the exploiting class. In an industrial economy it is the owners of natural resources (such as coal), or of the capital without which industry cannot be carried on.

There are one or two points here which should be noted. First, the use of the word 'class'. In common speech this word has a vague meaning and can be applied to a variety of social groups, but in Marxist language a 'class' is defined as a body of people who stand in a common relation to the ownership of the means of production and distribution. From this follows the second point, that in the last analysis there are never more than two classes in society, the exploiters and the exploited, and the interests of these two are bound to conflict. It should be added, however, that the exploiting class does not consist only of those who actually own large quantities of land or capital. It includes also those who enjoy comfort and status in the society ruled by the landlords or the capitalists, and who therefore feel a common interest

with the ruling group and are afraid of social change. These are the people who are called in Marxist language the 'lackeys of the bourgeoisie'. The great body of the middle class belongs to this group. Over against them stand the underprivileged and the discontented.

The history of mankind, says Marx, is nothing but the story of the various ways in which one group of men has been able to exploit another. It does not really deserve to be called history. True history will begin when we find a way of getting rid of exploitation and can manage our affairs properly. What we now call history is really pre-history—the record of different forms of exploitation and the methods, usually unsuccessful, adopted to throw them off—in short, the record of class conflicts. Note also that this statement is put forward by Marx not as a precept, but as a statement of fact. Marx is not saying to people, "Divide yourselves up into classes and then start fighting." He is saying that in fact, since the dawn of recorded time, people always have been divided into classes and always have been fighting.

Let us examine more closely how this works. The ruling group—the exploiting group—are, of course, ruling society in their own interests, and yet not exclusively in their own interests. The shepherd who tends sheep does so for those who will ultimately shear them and eat them, but yet while he is keeping them he must look after them with care. So, too, the rulers of society, in their own interests, must keep their subjects reasonably happy and efficient. Apart from that, the ruling group have also their own normal complement of human sympathies and they have a kindly feeling towards their subjects provided their own convenience is not too much affected. They would like to think of themselves as considerate rulers, and laws are made which sometimes give people a considerable measure of justice and freedom. But this happens only in prosperous times. Wait until times cease to be prosperous. Wait until the level of living comes down, and you will find that it is the subjects who suffer long before the ruling class begin to suffer. When retrenchment occurs it is at the expense of the labouring class, and it is then that the underlying conflict of interests between classes blows up into open conflict and strife, and even to rebellion.

It does not necessarily result in revolution. Rebellion is not revolution. It is no use the body of the people rebelling against their masters if they cannot destroy the conditions which made those men their masters, and it is the economic system which made that situation. A ruling class is made what it is by the economic system, and it can only be overthrown by a change in the economic system which gives the power to exploit into the hands of another group of people, as at the end of the XVIIIth Century the power of the landed aristocracy was overthrown by the owners of industry because there had been a change in the economic system from agriculture to industry. Whereas in the older world the owners of land were the exploiters, in the new era it was the owners of machinery. It is only when you get that kind of economic change that a new group of people can take the place of the former group and become the new ruling class.

Such a group of people, who are the next ruling class due to take power, are called the 'revolutionary class'. A revolutionary class is not a mass of people who are discontented; it is a class of people who, by virtue of an economic change, are due to take the power out of the hands of those who already have it. You never get a successful revolution until you have a combination of these two factors—

widespread discontent among the people and a revolutionary class nicely placed to take over the leadership of that discontent. Then you get a successful revolution.

Note this also. The revolutionary class lead the revolution with slogans about human freedom and justice, and they really believe that they are operating in the general interests of mankind; and yet the moment that they are in the saddle, they turn the cannon on their own supporters. This happened in France during her various revolutions in the XIXth Century. The middle class overthrow the aristocracy with the aid of the mass of the people, and then shoot down the mass of the people when they begin to talk about the rights of labour.

Is there no chance of an end to all this? Yes, there is, and the end will come soon. For the latest economic change is of a kind which has never been seen before. The latest economic change is the establishment of the present industrial system, and Marx sees one or two very striking features in this.

First of all, industrialism means machinery and that means factories. That means that you take your workers away from their villages and scattered cottages and bring them together in towns freshly built and clustered round the factory. You make them spend the greater part of their working hours not in their homes, not scattered over the countryside, but together in the factory, in the same work-room and at the same bench. You are bringing them together into a new kind of community—the factory—in which they are drawn closely together. You are taking them away from the village with its traditions and its conservatism, and making them open to ideas of change.

Secondly, machines mean technicians to make them, to service them, to work them. As you get more and more mechanized, you have more and more to educate your workers, and although you may start by teaching them only mathematics, mechanics, and subjects such as that, there will come a point where you cannot stop them getting the other part of knowledge which you would like to keep from them, namely, history and the art of government. In short, you are creating a class of people who have the power to organize, the power to size up the situation in which they stand and to combine for resistance.

There has never been anything like this before. There has never before been what there is now, an economic revolution which created within itself from the very beginning the next revolutionary class. The very change which brought into existence the bourgeoisie also brings into existence the educated working class who must ultimately dispossess their dispossessors. Nor have you ever before had a revolutionary class which was destined to become co-extensive with society. But the organized working class is bound to become so. For industrialization, once begun, cannot stop until it becomes world-wide and all-pervasive. Every activity of man will be drawn into the industrial pattern and every man will become part of that system. So the organized working class of the industrial society will become co-extensive with society. Therefore, when that class takes power, as it surely must, the power will be taken not by a new minority but by the great mass of the people, enlightened and organized, seeing their way forward and at last taking control of their destinies. That is why the coming working class revolution—the Socialist revolution—means so much to the Marxists. It is not just one revolution among others; it is the revolution to end revolutions. All past revolutions have sprung from the conflict of classes and have consisted of the overthrow of an exploiting

class by another exploiting class. Now we shall see the overthrow of the exploiting class, not by another exploiting class, but by the whole society, and industry, placed under social control, will at last be used for the public benefit and there will be no exploitation at all. There will be no class divisions, and therefore no class struggle, but a general consciousness that at last our lives are our own, that we are all pulling together, and our industries and government are all ours. That, says Marx, will be the beginning of history and it cannot be long delayed.

There is a further point with regard to this diagnosis and prognosis of revolution. Although the class which is going to take power will ultimately be co-extensive with society, so that the taking of power by that class will mean the socialization of life, yet the people who do the organizing, the political movers, will of course be a small group. There will have to be a workers' party, a revolutionary party, an organized body of people who have learned the doctrine and techniques of revolutionary activity and are skilled in it. That, of course, is the rôle of the Communist Party. It is the agent of the organized workers in the making of the revolution, so much so that the success of the Communist Party is the success of the revolution, and to further that success is to further the revolution and to oppose it is to oppose the revolution. You cannot distinguish between the Communist Party and the socialist revolution which carries in its hands the future of mankind.

The Communist Party does not, of course, consist entirely of men from the factories. It gets a great deal of leadership from the present ruling class, men like Karl Marx himself and his friends and collaborators, men who, born and trained as rulers in the ruling class, have seen how unjust it is and have thrown in their lot with the revolutionary class—the workers. That is Karl Marx's explanation of himself.

I started this exposition with the broadest conception of a world in which man is at grips with nature and with his fellow men. Through the conception of conflict, reconciliation, and progress coming out of the dialectic, we have narrowed it down to the diagnosis of class struggle and then to the prognosis of the coming end of class struggle which will not be very far delayed. Finally, we have narrowed that down still further and seen that the interests of the revolution are the interests of the Communist Party, and therefore the Communist Party is the standard-bearer of the hopes of mankind. We have almost come to the point at which we can connect this exposition with the present-day facts of the Communist movement. I must, however, bring in one further group of considerations to complete the story.

The exploitation of man by man is bound to have a bad effect on the emotional atmosphere of society. It will breed resentment, jealousy, snobbery, fear. And no one in such an atmosphere as this is likely to be able to think clearly and impartially. Therefore, as long as humanity is split in two by the struggle between classes, our intellectual and cultural life must suffer damage and distortion. Even scientific thinking can be affected by social pressures and inhibitions, especially when it threatens to expose the foundations of class domination. To an even greater extent law and morality, religion and art, are twisted and distorted by the part we all have to play in the class struggle. Thus, law always presents itself with a façade of principles of justice, but you find when you look at it in detail that laws are so drawn up that they favour the propertied class. You will find in practice that there is one law for the rich and another for the poor. That is not the conscious intention of the legislator, but it is the way it always happens and must happen in the kind of society

in which the legislator works. Similarly, moral principles do not come from heaven. Morality is simply the organized public opinion of a social group as to how their members should regulate their relations with one another, and there are different moralities. There is, for instance, the morality of the ruling class and that of their victims. Both arise out of class struggle; they are a product of it and are to be judged by the part they play in it.

Therefore, in the present time the only morality which deserves a place is the working class morality, and for the future as yet unborn, the morality of the classless society.

As for religion, it is nothing but a compensation for the many frustrations which arise out of the class struggle and which, so long as we are involved in the struggle, we cannot diagnose or understand. As our knowledge and power grow, religion declines. Once having got rid of class struggle, once having ceased to frustrate and bewilder ourselves by contending against one another, having learned to live and work together all the time in a true socialist society, when we find ourselves the real masters of our destinies and there are no more mysteries, there will be no more God. In the meantime, all prohibitions alleged to have come from God are in fact disguised attempts on the part of the ruling groups to delay their inevitable deposition. Therefore, neither religious nor cultural principles have any force when they come into conflict with the living interests of the Party which is the bringer of the revolution and the hope of the world.

I emphasize this at the end of my talk because this is where we touch one of the features of the world-wide Communist Party as it appears to us to-day. This feature is its ruthlessness; its open contempt for what some of us regard as human decencies; and the curious way in which the really trained Communist seems to assume from the outset that he is a different kind of man from you, and that, of course, whatever you say, you will do him down if you can. Some of the difficulties that one finds in dealing with Marxists are accounted for in this way. The deep-seated distrust, the truculence and combativeness, the 'revolutionism' and inhumanity that one finds in the behaviour of organized Communist Parties and governments are not accidental and are not due to the fact that they are Russian or Chinese. These are not national characteristics. These are characteristics of the doctrine and follow logically from it. I think that that should be borne in mind when one forms one's judgment on the doctrine as a whole.

Whatever may be its faults, it is a brilliant construction of the human mind. It unites so many different things. In its own way it covers so much and unifies so much that we normally think of only in a scattered sort of way. By this unity and coherence it carries conviction to many people. Then, too, it offers the certainty of a happy future for mankind. Here it is two things at once. It claims to be scientific and yet it also embodies a messianic hope. It is a diagnosis of the way things work and also the promise of a deliverance shortly to come. In addition to all this it offers the doctrine of the rôle of the Party and the prospect of active membership and service in the Party to those who want not merely a doctrine and a hope, but a programme of action. Take it as a whole and form a reasoned judgment upon it, but be sure that you cannot fully meet its challenge unless you have at your disposal a body of ideas which is equally far reaching and equally organized, equally promising and more humane.

DISCUSSION

THE CHAIRMAN : I have always understood that Marx produced his theory, at the beginning, very largely as a result of his experience and study of conditions in this Country during the period of the industrial revolution, when England was developing a highly industrialized economy. It is difficult, therefore, for some of us to understand how it took such a hold and so quickly in Russia, which was basically an agricultural community.

THE LECTURER : That has always been a paradox, but it is not strictly true that Marx founded his theory on British conditions. He had the essence of it before he came to this Country. So far as it came from a study of actual conditions, they were German and French conditions. If you look at the account of his early life, you will find that he was active in German politics during the period of conservatism and reaction that followed the end of the Napoleonic wars, and he was very interested in the successive revolutions in France. What he did in this Country was to document his analysis of capitalism and launch his organized movement.

Why it caught on in Russia is a question to which I do not know the answer. Marx thought that it would be bound to come first in the most highly industrialized countries, but the only highly industrialized country which has adopted it so far is Czechoslovakia, and there it was imposed by force from outside.

THE CHAIRMAN : Can you say, in the light of the theory which must be held to be the mainspring of the Communist Party, that there can be any basic sincerity on their part in any theory of peaceful co-existence ? It would appear that the whole theory leads eventually to world domination.

THE LECTURER : Undoubtedly it leads ultimately to world domination, and they never pretend that peaceful co-existence is more than a passing phase. However, one thing about dialectic is that it means being flexible. It means that you form a theory to fit the conditions of the time when it is formed. If at a later time the position changes, you adopt a new theory. The action which Lenin's successors have taken in building up the Soviet Union into one of the strongest Powers in the world, has in fact altered the position. Conditions have been created in which, perhaps, capitalistic Powers dare not attack and in which, therefore, we may look forward to a period of peaceful co-existence. That is how the matter looks to them.

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL : Our lecturer told us about an ideology in Russia, but I think that it is a little dangerous to suggest that there is anything of that sort in Russia at all. In Russia, as most of us know, the country is governed by about three per cent. of the people, and the remainder of the nation loathe everything to do with Communism. That is an undoubted fact. I have talked to hundreds of peasants in Russia, and that is the position. How will you build up in the future the Communist ideology when, in the one country in which it has been tried, it is not accepted ? Moreover, when everyone is equal and no one exploits anyone else, how do good men get paid in order to maintain efficiency ? Human nature tells us that is impossible.

I cannot see a single sign of anything possible in the way of producing anything of value in the world by that which we have heard this afternoon.

THE LECTURER : With regard to conditions in Russia, first of all we must remember that according to their own theory they are in a transitional stage. It is part of the Marxist doctrine that no ruling class ever abdicates willingly. It always resists and in the end resorts to force when it sees power slipping out of its hands. Revolution, therefore, always involves civil strife, and possibly civil war at the decisive moment, and as long as there is a generation of people left who have the old form of mentality, there will be enemies of the revolution about. This being so, it follows that after the socialist revolution the Communist Party must rule dictatorially for a time. It is the so-called dictatorship of the proletariat, the dictatorship of the working class. It is in fact the dictatorship of the Communist Party, because the Communist Party is supposed to represent the

working class. That is the state of things which exists in Russia, and will continue to exist until the danger to the U.S.S.R., internally or externally, is at an end. At present there is discontent and occasional conspiracies within, and there is an armed world outside, which to anybody in Russia looks like hostile encirclement. Until there is no danger to the revolution the Communist Party must continue to operate dictatorially. When the danger to the revolution ceases, and when, therefore, the dictatorship is no longer needed, then they say it will wither away.

As far as the peasants are concerned, again we must remember that the revolutionary class in whose hands the future lies is not supposed to be the peasantry, but the industrial workers. Peasants are the most individualistic, property-ridden, grasping, conservative people in the world. Peasants are not popular even with the theorists of liberalism and capitalism. It is therefore necessary that the Communist Party should show the peasants exactly where they get off and as far as possible, and as quickly as possible, 'de-peasantize' them, if I may use such an expression. That is done by putting them into collective farms. This operation, with all the resulting friction, is bound to bulk large if you try to make a socialist revolution in a predominantly agricultural country.

On the question of equality, of course, Communism never promised equality to everybody. What it does promise is that ultimately every one should have what he needs, which is an entirely different thing.

Then the question is asked, "How can anyone believe that this will happen, human nature being what it is?" But to ask that is to talk of human nature as though it were something fixed and definite. No Marxist will admit this. It is part of their theory that human nature is changeable and depends on the conditions in which one lives. To some extent we acknowledge this ourselves. We know all about fighting crime by removing slums, and curing the problem child by taking him away from the bad home; we know these things in the case of individuals, and the Marxist contention is that the same is true of whole societies. Incidentally, Mr. Lysenko, who some years ago was famous for his claim concerning the influence of environment on heredity, was supposed to be giving biological confirmation of this theory. So far as I can gather he is less popular in the U.S.S.R. now than he once was; however that may be, one reason for his popularity was that if what he said was true, it was experimental confirmation of this doctrine.

I am always a little surprised when I have the selfishness of human nature thrown at me in an audience such as this. It seems to me that we have in the Services, as also in the professions, a state of affairs where individual ambition is harnessed to public service. Of course you cannot keep a good man down, but how does the good man get his advancement? He gets it by excelling in public service. That is what, in the U.S.S.R., is called 'Socialist competition'!

SQUADRON LEADER S. CURSETJEE: Has the lecturer any idea of any system which might surpass that of Communism? If not, is it likely that in 50 years hence the whole world will be Communist?

THE LECTURER: I have no definite answer to that. You are really asking me two questions: firstly, whether I know a system of ideas which is fit to beat Communism, and, secondly, whether I think that Communism has a good chance of ruling the world. The two questions are not the same because there might be a superior system of ideas, yet it might not necessarily win. No one surely can fail to see that there are at the present moment in the general field of world politics circumstances which tell in favour of the Communist movement. That is a fact and it is no use pretending that it is not so. Whether in the long run there may not be even stronger forces working against it, I will not undertake to predict.

As to a system of ideas which is better, I wish I could say that I did know one. I think that I know the source from which that system would have to come, but if I named it, it would not meet with universal assent even in the western world, nor has it

been worked out in the detail in which Marxism has been worked out. Therefore I am afraid the answer is dubious in the case of both your questions, and I am not happy about it.

SQUADRON LEADER A. D. RUTHERFORD-JONES: The lecturer told us that true Communism is not practised in the Soviet Union as yet. I should like to suggest that militant imperialism is, in fact, the Soviet policy, and it bears little similarity to the Marxist theories which we have heard this afternoon. Certainly there is no classlessness. For example, Soviet officers have a status much above their men.

THE LECTURER: What you say about the class system in the U.S.S.R. is true, I am sure, and I regard it as confirmation of the principal criticism that I should bring against the Marxist theory if I were engaged in criticizing it. I should attack it at the point where it says that after the socialist revolution there will be no more class division. I should say that, on the contrary, you will get a new kind of class division based not on the ownership of property but on position in the Party or the State hierarchy.

SQUADRON LEADER RUTHERFORD-JONES: In fact, the difference between officer and man is not a new form of class at all. It is emphasizing the old form of class in Russia which puts us back to Czarist days.

THE LECTURER: I agree that the present set-up is largely the set-up of imperial Russia, with the Party in place of the aristocracy and the Church. There is a likeness, too, in the way they think about themselves. You know the Russians regarded themselves as the successors of the Byzantine Empire. Moscow was the third Rome after the second Rome (i.e., Constantinople) had been destroyed. All through the XIXth Century you will find writers saying that it is the destiny of Russia to conquer the world, to regenerate it by Christianity; and if they now say that they will conquer it and regenerate it by Marxism, from one point of view it is not a great deal of difference.

MAJOR-GENERAL SIR GEORGE LINDSAY: I am one of those who like to read every week the translations from all the Communist Press behind the Iron Curtain, and I must say that it is full of denunciations of the way things are run, not by the Communist Government (that would only lead to liquidation or the slave camp), but by the producers of materials, and so on. It would seem that the one topic under the Communist regime the whole time is the utter inefficiency of the stuff which is produced by the Communist hierarchy. Imagine the Bata shoe concern which was in Czechoslovakia and used to produce boots for the whole world, when now in Czechoslovakia itself the people complain because they cannot get a boot which does not fall to pieces in a few days. In Czechoslovakia, which was the biggest industrial country in central Europe, a man writes that he cannot get a razor blade! There is great dissatisfaction throughout all the countries behind the Iron Curtain about which one can read in the Communist Press itself, and I am sure that one of the reasons that they do not want to attack the western world in realizing their ideal of world domination is because they know that immediately behind them would rise the whole of the satellites to sabotage their lines of communication.

COMMODORE R. HARRISON: May I go one further and say that I am inclined to think that the rulers of Russia at present irritate the outside world in every way they can in order to make the West retain large defence forces, and so give themselves an excuse to keep up a large armed force to hold down their own population and that of the surrounding countries they have overrun.

THE LECTURER: Russian governments were always truculent to the outside world, and Chinese governments also.

COMMANDER A. E. SUTCLIFF: I shall go away this afternoon with a much clearer knowledge of the theory of Communism, but I think that is largely because I have a certain amount of education myself and have just been listening to an able and experienced lecturer. Professor Hodges got it over to me by using such terms, and

explaining them, as 'analysis of capitalism', 'dialectical materialism', 'diagnosis of revolution' and so forth; but what I should like to know is whether the masses can possibly understand them. The rank and file members of the Communist Party, at any rate in this Country, are of the lowest strata. Can they really understand these long words?

Secondly, do the rulers of Russia honestly subscribe to this theory or are they using it simply in order to maintain their present position?

THE LECTURER: So far as the masses are concerned, I take it that they do not understand in the technical sense. They have a general impression of the theme, however, because it comes over to them in many ways. Many members of the Communist Party in this Country have a low level of education and, what is more, their acquaintance with the writings of Marx is rather less than it might be. On the other hand there is a constant stream—never very large—in this Country of people joining the Party who have read the works of Marx and who know as much as the ordinary educated person can know about conditions in Russia without actually having been there. They join the Party and sometimes become fanatical exponents of it. I can only say that in their case it is a genuine understanding of that which I have been putting across. They understand it and it grips them, largely because they understand nothing else by which to test it. They are well informed on Marx, but often lacking in other things.

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL: Surely the reason that educated people become Communist in this Country is for the sake of publicity? That seems to be the theme that runs through all these evil people.

THE CHAIRMAN: If there are no more questions I should like to point out that I began by saying that I assumed, rightly I hope, that you had come here this afternoon in a quest for further knowledge and understanding of the background of Communism, and I sincerely hope that your needs in that respect have to some extent been met. Mine have. I do not pretend to understand it all yet, but I understand much more than I did.

We have listened to an excellent analysis of the basic theory of Marxist Communism, which was the purpose of this lecture, and there has been a good discussion which I think has provoked the lecturer to give us almost as much good meat as was in the lecture itself. If you have appreciated it all as much as I have, I would invite you to show it in the usual way. (*Applause.*)

RUSSIAN POLICY SINCE 1945

By SIR ALVARY GASCOIGNE, K.C.M.G.

On Wednesday, 17th November, 1954, at 3 p.m.

THE LORD STRANG, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., M.B.E., in the Chair

THE CHAIRMAN : We are here this afternoon to hear a lecture by Sir Alvary Gascoigne on Russian policy since 1945. I need hardly introduce Sir Alvary Gascoigne to you, because anyone who has been Her Majesty's Ambassador in Moscow is well known to the public of his own Country.

The time that he spent in Moscow was not his first experience of what we have come to call the "Iron Curtain countries". During the period immediately after the war he served as a member of the Allied Commission in Hungary, when he had as his Russian colleague Marshal Voroshilov.

There is this about service in Moscow that, although it is commonly said that you cannot establish normal contacts there, and that therefore the extent of your information is limited, yet something can be learned in Moscow which is not learned by those who do not go to Moscow. If only through the Press, you see the Soviet hierarchy at their daily work ; you see their day by day reaction to events ; and you get the feel of things.

The Soviet Union is a world Power. Its frontiers touch a great part of the world. As a world power it has a world view. Those who live in Moscow acquire a knowledge of the Soviet outlook. They see the world through Soviet eyes, and it looks to be a very different world from the world which we see from London. To get that other view is in itself a valuable experience.

I shall not delay you any longer and will call on Sir Alvary Gascoigne to address you.

LECTURE

IT is indeed a very great pleasure and a very great honour to have been asked to address you today on the question of Soviet policy since the war. I should make it clear in the first instance, I think, as I have only fairly recently resigned from the Foreign Service, that nothing I say has any essence of officialdom. The views that I express are entirely and absolutely my own, and they may not be agreed to by my friends in Whitehall.

I shall try to be as objective as I can, and I shall try to avoid something which I find is widespread, that is, wishful thinking about Soviet policy. In fact, I may well say some things which you will think are too brutally frank, and with which you will not agree. There will be many lacunæ, because this is only a skeleton picture. I have obviously not sufficient time to deal with details, and I shall not cite statistics. However, I hope that in the general debate which follows my talk some, at any rate, of the lacunæ will become apparent, and that you will be able to discuss them.

As I am dealing with Soviet policy after the war I shall have to refer first to Stalin and then to Malenkov. I shall also, during the course of my talk, discuss Communism in Asia, that is to say, Communism in China, because it would not be complete to discuss Russian policy without mentioning the great partner in Peking. After that I shall say a few words by way of conclusion as regards the future.

STALIN TAKES OVER

You will recall that it was in 1925 that Stalin really first came into prominence. Lenin died at the end of 1923 and there had been much dispute between the members of the old guard, Trotsky and so on, on the question of who would take Lenin's place.

But Stalin, with his forceful personality and brutal ruthlessness, managed in 1925 to gain the ascendancy over his colleagues. From that time right through until he died in 1953 he exercised the powers of perhaps the greatest dictator that the world has ever known. He used the Communist Party's organs as tools to carry out his own policy which amounted to his version of Lenin's principles. He concentrated during the whole of his reign upon the U.S.S.R. When he took over, the Soviet Union economy was down to zero owing to the aftermath of the Revolution, and by the time the World War came, willy nilly, to Russia in 1941, he had raised the industrial power of the Soviet Union to that of a first-class Power. His methods were cynical and brutal in the extreme. You will recall the purges which he carried out in Russia. There was the period of the agrarian collectivization at the end of the 'twenties when, according to Stalin himself, more than 10 million people perished. Then, after the assassination of Kirov in 1934, there was the purge of all those who Stalin thought might compete against his dictatorship. Again, in 1937 there was the purge of the armed forces. When war came in 1941, Stalin had to whittle down some of his more severe Communist principles; but from 1945 onwards he again imposed them. He went forward with his vast irrigation and electric power projects, and he also started a new policy in agriculture by experimenting in the creation of a number of State farms in the place of the collective farms, but in this venture he did not achieve final success. It is the agricultural sphere which has always been Russia's 'Achilles Heel.' To sum up, while Stalin was successful in building up Russia's industry, he was not wholly successful on the agricultural side.

STALIN'S POLICY TOWARDS THE 'NATIONALITIES' AND SATELLITES

His policy towards the non-Russian nationalities, the Ukrainians, Georgians, and so on, was uncompromising. He did not trust the indigenous elements to control them, but put in his own stooges (mostly Great Russians) to rule over them and to carry out his own requirements.

His policy towards those States of south-east and central Europe which Russia had overrun in 1944/45—I am referring to Poland, Bulgaria, Rumania, Hungary—was quite contrary to the policy which he should have implemented towards them in accordance with agreements made with his Allies. For, as you will recall, an understanding had been reached whereby these countries should be given freedom of choice as regards their future form of Government—a free hand as regards their future. Instead of that, what did Stalin do? I went to Hungary at the beginning of 1945 and I saw it happening there. He brought back a number of Moscow trained Hungarian Communists, placed them in the highest positions of State, and told them to 'go to it.' Backed by Russian bayonets, they were then able to impose the Communist regime upon their respective countries. In my opinion, if there were to be a free election today in those satellite countries—should such a thing be possible—over 90 per cent. of the population, and more like 98 per cent., would vote for the western democratic system.

STALIN'S POLICY TOWARDS ASIA

Stalin's policy towards China may be alluded to as one of respect. There has never been any question of Moscow treating Peking as a satellite. Stalin was deeply conscious of the power and size of China, especially after the failures which he had suffered there, commencing with Borodin's barren efforts in the 'twenties to infiltrate Communism—as a result of which he was banished from China in 1926.

That was a grave diplomatic set-back for Moscow. Then, of course, there were the snubs which Stalin received from Mao-Tse-Tung in 1947 and 1948 when he tried to influence Mao against sending his armed forces down from Manchuria to sweep away remnants of the Kuo-Min-Tang armies, arguing that this was not the way to bring Communism to China. Stalin's theory was that the best way to do this was to inject Communism into the ranks of Chiang Kai Shek's government and, so to speak, 'rot' it from the inside. However, Mao preferred to go his own way and to seize China by force. So Stalin was always respectful so far as China was concerned, and he withdrew much of Russia's influence from Manchuria. He did, however, leave at Port Arthur a token force of Russian troops which he explained away as being connected with the necessity to leave Soviet troops there until a peace treaty had been signed with Japan.

So far as Japan was concerned, Stalin wanted, very much indeed, to get hold of that country, as do his successors; but up to the present time the Russians have not met with any marked success. During the Allied occupation of Japan the Communist delegate to the Allied Council for Japan, which was established in Tokio during the period of the armistice, enjoyed no freedom of action. General of the Army Douglas MacArthur saw to that. And since then there has not been any marked movement towards Communism in Japan. But Japan might well one day become Communist, I fear, if America and Great Britain were to abandon her, or if she were to suffer a severe economic crisis. Such a state of things is, of course, exactly what Russia would work for, and we must be on our guard, for Japan is the key to the western Pacific.

STALIN'S POLICY TOWARDS THE WEST

Now I come to Stalin's policy towards the West and towards the United States. There was, as you will recall, during and just after the war a time which some people referred to as a 'honeymoon period' with Moscow. No description has ever been more falsely used. There was no 'honeymoon period,' it takes two to make a honeymoon and in this case the wooing was done entirely by us. The Russians never responded. You have only to read our own Prime Minister's memoirs to appreciate Russia's wholly selfish and hostile attitude during the war, even when fighting shoulder to shoulder with us in the face of the common enemy. Nevertheless, after the war there was a great deal of expectancy and hope on our side and we certainly tried to flirt with the Russians, but without success. At last, in 1947, we came to realize that we had been wrong to look for any change of heart. Stalin's external policy towards the West after the war was to put the U.S.S.R. back on the map, to build her up again after the terrible ravages of war. From 1947 onwards, while still observing diplomatic relations with the western nations, Stalin became so obstructive and impossible that no useful purpose was served by having dealings with him. He blocked everything that we put forward. But, at the same time, he worked as hard as he could through his fifth columns, which he has in every country I regret to say, and in other ways, to foment as much trouble as possible for western democracies. He also worked on the nationalities in colonial and independent territories. He did his utmost to embarrass us all over the world.

STALIN'S DEATH

When Stalin died, the Soviet Union was at peace and seemed to be prospering, but the people were leading a very hard life. There was a severe shortage of housing, the people worked eight hours a day for six days a week, the forced labour camps were full to overflowing, for slave labour was needed to carry out the irrigation and electric

power schemes to which I have already referred. Indeed, the whole population of the Soviet Union were Stalin's slaves, and they were completely cut off from free communication with the outer world. Nobody in Russia knew what would happen.

Stalin died on 5th March, 1953, and there was no open display of grief as was reported by certain organs of the Press. The people were expectant and rather hopeful of better things, but I do not think that there were many who were sorry to see their dictator go. Many probably said to themselves, "Well, almost anything would be better than what we have been suffering under Stalin." In this connection I would say that, in my opinion, over 90 per cent. of the population of Russia are not Communist at all. They are conforming to Communism because they have to—they don't like it. But there are three generations now who have grown up under this ghastly system, and they have to conform. Of course there are some who benefit a great deal by the regime. These people are, I think, the only ones who would tenaciously cling to the system which brings them power and luxurious living.

MALENKOV'S INTERNAL POLICY

After Malenkov and his people had taken over early in March, 1953, there were a number of public statements made from which it seemed that, both internally and externally, the Malenkov clique intended to adhere to the main lines of Stalin's policies. But very soon we found that some changes were being made. First of all, on the internal front, a definite bid was made by Malenkov for popularity. Well, most people would have done the same thing if they had suddenly been put in the position of assuming Stalin's heritage. Malenkov's first aim was to get the people of Russia behind him. So quite a number of concessions were made to the people. An amnesty was granted to criminal offenders, and a promise made of a revision of the penal code (this has not been kept up to now). A great deal was also said about relaxing the regulations governing poets, musicians, actors, and so on, but that does not seem to have been implemented and they seem to be going back on it. Then, recently, they issued new instructions with regard to the more lenient treatment by members of the Communist Party of officers of the Church and of the Church's congregation.

Then, you will recall, there was the 'Beria' incident. You will recollect that Beria was dismissed and imprisoned in May, 1953, and finally liquidated sometime afterwards. He had been a particular friend of Malenkov; on one occasion in March, 1953, after the death of Stalin, when I attended a Congress of Soviets I saw them sitting together: they were laughing and chatting away as if they had not a care in the world. The liquidation of Beria did not, as was first mooted, result in any reduction in the strength of the political police of which he had been the head. The M.V.D. and N.K.V.D. remain just as powerful today as they ever were. That is, of course, the secret of the hold which the Government in Moscow has over the population.

Great stress has been laid by the present clique on 'collectivity' in the Government and they appear to have moved away from Stalin's one man dictatorship. As far as we can tell, the present leaders are in fact governing collectively at present, and they are not merely using the established organs of the Party as tools to implement their policy. They seem to be consulting the Communist organs in the formulation of policy. Whether there is a struggle for power going on at present, and Krushchev, the First Secretary of the Communist Party, is in the ascendant in that struggle as some people seem to think, I do not know. But, in my opinion, a 'collective' Government in Russia will not last. I think that there will be a struggle for power, but it is futile to predict when this will happen or who will emerge when it takes place. Nobody can tell what goes on within the Kremlin's walls.

MALENKOV'S POLICY TOWARDS THE 'NATIONALITIES' AND SATELLITES

In his policy towards the non-Russian nationalities Malenkov has also made a change. He has removed a number of Stalin's men, and has replaced them by men who are natives of the areas concerned. He seems to have tried to induce these areas to co-operate with him freely instead of forcing them to do so by sending emissaries from Moscow. Whether this milder policy will succeed remains to be seen—the nationalities do not love Moscow.

Policy towards Russia's satellites remains, I think, the same as in Stalin's day. There has recently been some speculation on the withdrawal by Russia from certain mixed trading companies. These companies in Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and so on were one of the means by which Russia channelled such trade as she required from the satellite countries to Russia. While she has in fact withdrawn from some of these companies, my information shows that she has many other means of ensuring that the satellite States remain tightly bound to Moscow's economy.

MALENKOV'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS CHINA

As regards his relations with China, Malenkov has done some interesting work, and I think that he has displayed sound statesmanship. He has recently withdrawn, or promised to withdraw, from Port Arthur, and to remove any lingering Russian influence from Manchuria. He has also made certain concessions as regards new railways, which will result in diminishing Russia's influence in Outer Mongolia, which was likely to prove a bone of contention between Moscow and Peking. In my view he has displayed prudent diplomacy, but many argue that it is nothing of the sort—that he has been forced to withdraw, and that this means that Russia is 'getting out of Asia.' I, personally, think that these latest Russian moves show that Peking-Moscow relations have now reached a point where some considerable elasticity in their relationship is possible, certainly neither country can afford to quarrel with the other. It is true that China is more dependent on Russia than Russia is on China, but Russia is also dependent on China for many imports. China is at the moment almost wholly dependent on Russia for the capital goods and the technical assistance which she requires for the implementation of her Five Year Plans, the first of which is well under way.

MALENKOV AND THE WEST

Now I come to Malenkov's policy towards the western countries and the United States. Immediately Stalin died—when I was still in Moscow—there were some signs of a change. In December, 1952, we were told to abandon our Embassy building. There ensued a deal of hard and unpleasant negotiations. The first sign I had of a change of policy towards us was when, a few days after Stalin's funeral, I was sent for by the Soviet Ministry of Foreign Affairs and told that the edict had been cancelled and that we could stay in our Embassy after all. There followed a softening up generally, so far as we were concerned, of our day to day relations with the Kremlin, and certain persons who had been imprisoned within the Embassy for a number of years were permitted to return to England. Our discussions with members of the Soviet Foreign Office became, I will not say cordial, but a bit more friendly and correct. That is not to say that our previous contacts had been discourteous, but the Russians in the time of Stalin had kept themselves rigidly to the discussion of purely official matters. Now they opened up their hearts a bit more, and our visits to the Foreign Office were at least more pleasant if not more fruitful.

Malenkov has also initiated—I am speaking generally—some intense cultural propaganda. He has sent his ballet dancers and sportsmen to western Europe. Although this may seem trivial, I think that it makes a considerable impression on the man in the street. There are many people who think that the new Russian leaders in doing this must be rather nice chaps, and that all that we have to do is to 'get down to it' and have a talk with them in order to reach an agreement. In more serious matters, however, we have not been able to get anywhere with them as far as I can see. To take the European scene, where have we got to with Malenkov's people as regards Germany or Austria? It is quite true that Malenkov seems to have accepted the Trieste settlement surprisingly well. It is also true that he is having a flirtation with Tito, but that may prove embarrassing to us. I do not know how far it will go; I am banking on Tito's intelligence not to let it go too far. But on matters of first importance, such as Germany and Austria, the Kremlin has not lifted a little finger to meet us in our search for a solution.

COMMUNISM IN ASIA

I now want to digress for one moment and talk about Asia and China. First of all, what is the Chinese Government at Peking? Is it a Communist Government? Or is it merely a Government which has been brought into being by an agrarian revolution? Some people seem to think that the present Chinese leaders are not, strictly speaking, Communist and that they might one day follow Tito's example, or that they might abandon Russian socialism altogether. I think that this is nonsense. The 601 million population of China to-day are being subjected to the same revolting regime as the Russians have been subjected to, except that it has not yet been fully developed. Russian socialism is in fact being introduced into China, and as far as one can see it will certainly be consolidated in course of time. The Chinese will gradually be turned into slaves in the same way as the Russians have been. The Chinese revolution is admittedly different from the Russian revolution in that it was based on the peasants and the intelligentsia, whereas the Russian revolution was based on the industrial population. But to refer to what is going on in China as an agrarian revolution is not by any means the complete story. We have in Peking a bunch of cruel but clever Communists, and they mean to put through the Communist programme—whatever it may cost in lives.

So far as Chinese policy towards ourselves is concerned, we have of course tried to achieve an understanding with Peking, and to establish diplomatic relations with the Chinese Communists. They accepted our suggestion in 1950, but it is only quite recently that they have sent a diplomatic representative to this Country, while we have had a man in Peking for the past four years!

I have tried to give you a brief survey of the Communist picture as I know it. Let us see now where the West have got to in their dealings with Malenkov and Mao. I have already spoken about Europe, where little progress has been made. I will now deal shortly with Asia.

SITUATION IN KOREA AND INDO-CHINA

What has happened in Asia? It is true that when Malenkov came into power he stopped the local wars. I feel sure that it was owing to his influence that the Chinese signed an armistice in Korea; he also undoubtedly brought his influence to bear upon the Chinese as regards the armistice in Indo-China. But both in Korea and in Indo-China the way to peace seems now to be blocked. The armistice which was brought about in Indo-China so cleverly, and very largely by reason of the

tremendous efforts made by our own Foreign Secretary, is not as satisfactory as it might be. I am sure that Sir Anthony Eden would be the first to agree on that. What has happened, of course, is that Viet-Nam has been partitioned and Tonking given over to the Communists, who are consolidating their position there. They have not yet, it seems, acted offensively towards the Tonkingese; they have come as 'missionaries', and in this way they are gradually winning the people over to their side. Once they have got them in a secure grip they will impose the Communist regime according to the usual bestial methods. As far as South Viet-Nam is concerned, there seems to be chaos at present. The Government appears to be impotent, and Communist infiltration is proceeding on an ever increasing scale. The Communists are using their usual methods of subversion, so that when free elections are held in 1956 the people should vote Communist and thus the whole of Viet-Nam become Communist. I think that we shall have to face that unsatisfactory, and most dangerous, issue unless a miracle happens.

In the other States of Indo-China, Cambodia and Laos, the situation is not good. There is much Communist infiltration going on which the Governments of these States have been unable to cope with. To sum up, the situation in Indo-China as a whole does give rise to anxiety, for it looks as if not only Viet-Nam, but the whole of Indo-China will in due course become Communist. And let us not forget that Malaya, Siam, and Burma are in the vicinity. We must hope that the new steps which we have taken under S.E.A.T.O. and the Colombo Plan will be fruitful in helping to contain the spread of Communism in South-East Asia as we have, I think, succeeded in containing it in Europe—but the prospects are not bright as far as I can see.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

As I have implied, I hold the view that the blandishments of Malenkov amount to nothing more than a change of tactics towards the West. He is executing these tactics towards us in the hope that they will spread confusion in the western camp by successfully appealing to the people over the heads of their Governments. Malenkov has evidently realized that Stalin's brutal and ham handed ways of carrying out his policy have done nothing more than unify the West; he is now using other and, I believe, more dangerous methods. But his goals are the same. His fundamental policy still aims at world domination. The answer, therefore, in my humble opinion, to the question which our Prime Minister recently referred to as being the "greatest question in the world to-day", namely, whether since Stalin's death there has been a change of heart in the Kremlin, is an unqualified "No, not yet at any rate."

What are we to do therefore? As I see it, there is only one line to take and that is the line which we are taking, and which I presume we shall certainly continue to take. That is, to remain alert and on the defensive, and to preserve the closest possible unity with the United States and with our Allies in western Europe. Russians do not, I think, look to a world war as a means of reaching their goals. They know just as well as everybody else that, to-day, there is no alternative to peace. They know full well that in this atomic age the victors in war will suffer just as much as the vanquished. The Russians remain, however, wholly intent upon sabotaging our regimes from the inside, upon splitting up our unity with our friends, and upon reducing us to such a condition of 'ripeness' that they will be able to walk in and pick us off one by one. Since 1947, however, we have gradually, and painfully, and

with great sacrifice, built up a united defence system in Europe; and we are now in the process of carrying out a similar programme in Asia, hand in hand, of course, with certain Asian countries. We must not falter in this. If we do we shall eventually be doomed. On the other hand, the increase in our defensive strength and unity may make a considerable difference in the future in softening our relationship with the East. For unity, strength, firmness, and consistency of purpose are assets which the Russians respect, as anybody who has had any dealings with them must surely know.

DISCUSSION

CAPTAIN P. BETHELL, R.N. : I should like to thank the lecturer for his most absorbing talk, and in so doing point out that part of the audience has been mesmerized by the map which hangs behind him. People who most need to use maps are sailors, who call them charts, and that map is actually a chart; but it is an unfortunate fact that the sort of chart which is most convenient for sailors is the worst sort on which to consider any sort of strategical problem. The Mercator chart such as that grossly exaggerates the size and importance of places in the high latitudes. Siberia, Greenland, and the north parts of Canada are not anything like as big and important as they seem to be on the chart. Although the lecturer has not touched upon the defence aspect, it has always seemed to me that we are looking the wrong way in the defensive problem, and by looking the wrong way I mean looking towards the wrong cardinal point. We look east and the Americans have to look east and west, but I think we should be looking north.

I should like to ask the lecturer to what extent he feels that the Soviet Government is paying attention to strategic bases within the Arctic Circle and along the northern Siberian coast.

THE LECTURER : I should think that they are paying very keen attention, but I am not in a position to answer that question because I do not know.

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL : We have had an extraordinarily interesting lecture and it has touched on many points of which I have a good deal of knowledge. If I may say so, I agree with the lecturer, who has put the matter extremely well and fairly.

The part which I think he might have stressed a little more concerned the question of infiltration. I have worked with a good many bodies which are in close touch with what the Communists are doing in dockland—in England, mark you—and there is no doubt that things are moving at a fast speed. In dockland, there are concentrations of Communist dockers who spread fear among the others. That is the Communist non-military offensive which is very serious and to which very little attention has been paid.

There will be no shooting war. The Soviet leaders are very able and they will not start a war which we are bound to win in the end; but the Communist offensive is of tremendous importance. I did not hear from the lecturer any suggestion as to what we ought to do about it. If we go on as we are, the Communists are bound to win. They are winning right and left now, and they will certainly win the cold war if we continue as we are at present.

The only solution we have is co-existence. That is the official plan and it may come off. If it does we might get over our difficulties, but what I cannot understand is this. Suppose it does not come off, and in four or five years' time we see that we are losing and that Communist infiltration is gaining ground. What are we going to do? Now is the time to prepare for our non-military offensive. We need not put it into effect, but we should prepare for it now. Let us prepare our non-military offensive now, and then if co-existence fails we shall have something up our sleeve. The Russian understands bargaining, if we have something to bargain with.

THE LECTURER: I think that there is a great deal of truth in what you have said and I stand corrected. I should have laid much more emphasis, of course, upon the fifth column, and, indeed, we have had enough evidence lately of that in this Country.

I do not see how it would be possible to infiltrate into the Soviet Union. I cannot convince myself that it would be practicable to do so. I do not see how we should get in. Of course, we have our radio broadcasts going on at the present time. We do our best by radio to tell these people about the way we live and so on. The American radio, on the other hand, is more severe and more direct. The problem is how to infiltrate into Russia in the same way as they are infiltrating here.

The Russians will go on with their fifth columns, and there will never in my opinion be any possibility of making any formal agreement with Russia with regard to co-existence. We shall not sign an agreement with those people knowing all the time that they are trying to ruin us. How can we?

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL: On the question of getting the information to the Russians, which is something about which they are very concerned, we have the Voice of America working on voluntary contributions and the B.B.C. with its very small grant from the Treasury, but the whole thing is on an amateur scale. If this is our main offensive, surely we must do it properly. Whoever heard of a world war being won on voluntary contributions!

SQUADRON LEADER S. CURSETJEE: Is it not correct that Russia once wanted to join N.A.T.O.? In view of the fact that N.A.T.O. was primarily organized for the defence only of the West, was the Soviet request merely cynical or was there some sinister motive?

THE LECTURER: Russia certainly did suggest going as far as joining N.A.T.O. and the motive was, in my view, entirely cynical and sinister. What she wanted to do was to get into N.A.T.O. and cause consternation and chaos all round.

FLIGHT LIEUTENANT C. SARGEANT: A few weeks ago we were listening to a lecturer giving an address on militant Communism. One appreciated that this might appeal to certain people. At the conclusion of the lecture it was suggested that the Russian leaders were not really Communists at all but were using this militant Communism as bait. In the lecturer's opinion are the Russian leaders 'good' Communists, or are they cynically exploiting this theme?

THE LECTURER: It is impossible to say, but in my view Molotov and the old guard are sincere Communists. I do not know whether the younger leaders are, but whether they are or not, they are bound to hang on to Communism because it is through Communism that they have their power. I should think that comparatively few are sincere Communists and I do not think that the man in the street gives a damn about Communism!

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR JOHN ELDRIDGE: There were articles in *The Times* recently which seemed to suggest that there is a certain freeing of thought in Russia, and the suggestion was made that this may be an embarrassment to the Russian Government if it goes too far. Is there any chance of freedom of thought bringing a change in the climate of opinion in Russia?

THE LECTURER: That is a very interesting question and one which was discussed with a Russian refugee who has recently come over here. I did say that they have let up a bit since Malenkov and Company took over and seem to be allowing more scope to the artists, writers, and so forth. But I think that they have come to the conclusion that it will not be possible to give these people complete freedom. I think that there is a tremendous upsurge amongst the intelligentsia of Russia at the present time. They have seen the light; they have been told that they would have more freedom and they were given it, but then came the swing back and certain people got into trouble for saying things they should not have said. I think in the end you will find that they will be kept more or less in the same chains as in Stalin's day.

WING COMMANDER P. M. BROTHERS : I should like to suggest that in order to keep up with the technical development of the West, the Soviets will have to extend considerably their educational facilities. With higher standards of education, the people may begin to think for themselves and thus eventually question the Communist dogma.

THE LECTURER : Education in Russia is being changed, as a matter of fact. It is taking a more normal course and it is not being conducted on such orthodox Communist lines as it was ; but you must remember that they are entirely blocked off from the outside world. They cannot really make comparisons with the lives of people who live under a free democracy. Therefore that will only seep through rather slowly. I think that at the present time there is a revision going on in the field of education and it is being made more normal and more up-to-date.

ADMIRAL OF THE FLEET SIR ARTHUR POWER : One mystery to me is how Russia is blocked off from the outside world. She has thousands of miles of land frontier, yet frontier security is practically perfect and two or three years ago when I was serving I was told, "Oh, we do not know this and we do not know that." Why do not we know it ? There may be 10,000 people crossing from the East to the West, yet the frontier security is perfect. Does the lecturer think that this arrangement is inspired by fear or is it a sign of great strength ?

THE LECTURER : I think that it is a sign of fear. If arrangements could be made not only for people from the West to go into Russia but for Russians to come out and see the West, it would soon result in the end of the present regime. I think that it is absolutely through fear that they keep people out of touch with anything savouring of western democracy. When these tourists go to Russia and come back and say, "We have seen everything and everybody and have been able to talk to anybody," I know what happens. They are shown things they want to see and they are allowed to walk about the streets, but they are trailed. Certain Russians who are stooges are put in their path so that they talk to these people, the Russians being primed about what to say. Great precautions are taken to keep tourists away from the ordinary Russian. I think it is very remarkable that they are sealed off as they are, but I am sure they are sealed off because of fear of contamination with western democracy.

WING COMMANDER P. M. BROTHERS : The lecturer referred to the withdrawal by Russia from certain parts of China, but do they not still control Sinkiang, which is regarded as Chinese territory ?

THE LECTURER : They were in Sinkiang, the war came, they withdrew, then they came back and occupied a great part of it, and now, according to my information, they are again withdrawing.

ADMIRAL SIR ARTHUR PALLISER : The lecturer has given us an extremely clear picture of Russian policy towards China and South-East Asia, and towards the West and the satellite countries, but could he give us any indication of their general policy towards the countries lying between Turkey on the west and Afghanistan on the east ?

THE LECTURER : Their policy towards Turkey is softening up. They have abandoned their territorial claims, and they are trying to do all they can to start some spurious friendship. In the Arab countries, they will if they can stir up as much trouble as possible, particularly for us, and the same applies to Japan and North Africa, where they will confine the conflict to any insurrections or local risings of nationalists which may arise. In Persia, they have failed for the moment. Persian Communists are shot every day, and the present regime is taking a strong line. To my mind that is an interesting failure, because some time ago they were convinced that Persia would go Communist, but they did not. They refrained from active prosecution of their policy because they thought that Persia was a 'sitting rabbit', but now everything is going against them.

SQUADRON LEADER S. CURSETJEE : The last speaker mentioned Afghanistan and its relationship with the Soviet Union. I should also like to know what the position is at the present time, and would add to that, Nepal.

THE LECTURER : In Nepal, the situation is becoming dangerous, I think, from the point of view of India. There is a deal of Communism there. Afghanistan is a country which the Russians are handling with the velvet glove—they are covering it with saliva like the serpent before it swallows its prey !

The Government of Afghanistan is frightened of Moscow ; every now and again some quite unreasonable demand is made to Afghanistan by the Russians. For instance, the oil borings in Afghanistan near the Russian frontier—the Russians demand that work should cease as it is a menace to Russia's security—and it stops.

COLONEL R. O. WARD : I imagine that the population of Russia is enormous and that it is also a very mixed population. I should like to know whether they all think alike and whether they like being governed as they are, or is not there a proportion who resent very much being governed as at present ? Is not there a possibility that the present regime may be overthrown as other regimes have been overthrown ?

THE LECTURER : I should like to think there was, but I do not think there is the slightest possibility, because the Russian Government holds the people tightly by means of the secret police. They have informers in every village, hamlet, and farm, and people know what will befall them if they start doing anything against their Communist rulers.

There are many races which go to make up the U.S.S.R., but I think that it must be remembered that there are now three generations in Russia who have known nothing but Communism. They know nothing about the outside world, and I do not think that there is a chance of a successful rising to overthrow the present regime. I think that the only chance would be in the course of a general war, and then only if the Russian Army was in full retreat.

CAPTAIN A. R. FARQUHAR, R.N. : At the end of the war I understand that the Russian Army had tremendous prestige and power, but Stalin very soon put the marshals back in their place. Have the marshals reassumed their place or are they underground ?

THE LECTURER : Some have. When Malenkov took over he was cute enough to realize that he must have the Army on his side. So he picked certain well-known Soviet generals and put them into his hierarchy. It was only with the assistance of the Army that he was able to carry out the very wonderful coup which led to the liquidation of Beria. Since Stalin's death the Army has gone up several points.

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GIFFARD MARTEL : Lord Ismay in a recent lecture told us a great deal of the work which is going on to meet the possibility of a shooting war. On the question of the non-military offensive which is taking place at full speed to-day, he told us that N.A.T.O. is not charged with any responsibility in this field. What it comes to is that we are concentrating on preparations for a war which is unlikely to take place and doing practically nothing about the cold war that has already started.

THE LECTURER : I think we must be prepared for emergencies.

MAJOR-GENERAL J. M. KIRKMAN : Does the lecturer consider that the split which he suggested as possible in the present hierarchy of the Soviet Union between Krushchev and Malenkov might lead to rival factions in the country, or does he see it merely as a purge as in 1936 ?

THE LECTURER : If a revolution took place there might be, but I hardly think so. I think that when it comes it will be brought about by Malenkov or Krushchev, who will first of all make absolutely certain of their ground and will get the stronger forces on their side. It is difficult to say whether there could be a civil war resulting from this struggle for power. I do not think that we can count on that.

CAPTAIN D. H. HARRISON : Would the lecturer tell us whether in his opinion the trouble in our little Colony of Kenya is at all due to Russia ?

THE LECTURER : I have seen it stated most definitely in the newspapers that it is not, and that the Mau Mau have not been fanned to flame by the Soviets. But having lived in Russia and having had something to do with the Russians, I often wonder myself

whether there has not been Russian 'fanning' for a nationalistic rising of that kind. I am sure that the Communists were responsible for much of the trouble in Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco.

WING COMMANDER P. M. BROTHERS : As an ex-District Officer in Kenya I should like to confirm those remarks. The leader of the Mau Mau had Communist contacts and had been to Moscow, but he was interested only in building up his own power.

WING COMMANDER E. BENTLEY BEAUMAN : The lecturer said just now that the Russians were being kept down by the secret police. I should like to know who the secret police are, why they keep on doing this, and whether they are keen Communists.

THE LECTURER : They are specially picked people and they 'cut a lot of ice.' They are very much feared. They receive quite good pay and to get into the secret police is not easy, so they enjoy it when they are in. They are not necessarily members of the Communist Party.

THE CHAIRMAN : It now remains for me to do what I am sure you would wish me to do, namely, in your name to thank Sir Alvary Gascoigne for his most absorbing lecture.

He has, both in his talk and in the replies to the various questions, given us very generously of the fruit of his long experience, and I think it fair to say that both the volume and the pertinence of the comments and questions which have come from the audience show how deep an interest his remarks have aroused among us. I do not think that I should be wrong if I thought, from the trend of the questions, that the thesis which he developed to us commended itself, broadly speaking, to us all. Certainly, for myself there was nothing which he said with which I should have disagreed. I think that his thesis is a sound one, and one which it is well for us always to bear in mind.

Therefore, in your name, I have much pleasure in thanking Sir Alvary Gascoigne most sincerely for his most interesting and informative lecture. (*Applause.*)

THE LECTURER : I feel deeply honoured by your remarks, Sir, especially as most of us know that you have had great experience of Russia yourself. Lord Strang spent many years in Moscow and he, of course, dealt with all the Russian problems which came up while he was Permanent Under Secretary at the Foreign Office. To hear from his lips that he agrees with some of the things I have said is indeed most gratifying.

ADMIRAL OF THE FLEET SIR ARTHUR POWER : We have been very fortunate in the Institution this year, not only with our lecturers but also with those who have honoured us by taking the Chair. We have never been more fortunate in my view than to-day in our choice of Chairman, and I desire on your behalf to propose a hearty vote of thanks to Lord Strang for having presided over our proceedings. (*Applause.*)

UNVEILING OF THE ALAMEIN MEMORIAL

ON SUNDAY, 24TH OCTOBER, 1954

ADDRESS BY FIELD-MARSHAL THE VISCOUNT MONTGOMERY OF ALAMEIN,
K.G., G.C.B., D.S.O.

WE are met here to-day to unveil and dedicate a Memorial to the soldiers and airmen who fell in the campaigns in the Middle East and who have no known graves. It is a joint Army and Air Force Memorial. The names are of men from the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Southern Rhodesia, and from the Colonies of the British Empire.

The soldiers fell in many countries and over a vast area—in Egypt and Libya in the campaigns of December, 1940, to July, 1942, in the Battle of Alamein and the advance to Tripoli and the frontier of Tunisia, and in the campaigns of 1941 in Iraq, Syria and Lebanon, and Persia.

The airmen lost their lives in operations covering an even greater area, while serving from bases in the eastern Mediterranean, the Near East, and East Africa.

I regard it as a supreme honour that I have been asked to perform the unveiling ceremony, and with all humility I would like to speak to you who are with me here at Alamein on this Sunday afternoon.

We commemorate to-day an hour that none of us will ever live again, not even those who shared it. These are not the times we knew; all is different, even this place where we now stand. We have all gone on to other fields of service. And if there be an eternal road, as I believe there is, those whose names are inscribed on this Memorial and their comrades who rest in the cemetery itself have gone on to greater adventures than we. All the more, we have real business here to-day: real need to mark this place of powerful memories.

Fine men and brave deeds speak to us with the authority of proven truth and say:

“What was done here at Alamein, and elsewhere in the Middle East, can be done again, if we go the same way about it.”

At a decisive moment in history, one fleeting chance found men with the spirit and will to seize it; it was all or nothing at Alamein in 1942. In this life we meet each task but once; we never pass that way again. So it was at Alamein 12 years ago. Through this Memorial Gateway we should return to our homes resolved to live the present hour as those past hours were lived.

Three words live in my memory, and I would like to make them the central theme of what I have to say to-day. The words are:

Forward.

Together.

Victory.

What were we doing in those days of fighting at Alamein and elsewhere that is a light to us to-day?

First, we were going forward.

We were going forward to meet whatever fate awaited us. And there is no reason for thinking that those who died, or those who mourn them, are less content

to have discharged their duty than we who remain. We call to mind a long journey, hard living, hard fighting, hard going all the way. Many who fought with us fell by the way. And we who remain are scattered far and wide.

Let us rest the solemnity of this moment on the memory of duty done. And we who stand around this Memorial to-day form a Guard of Honour to those whose names we commemorate, expressing from former glories our confidence in the future. And as we went forward then, so we must go forward to-day. The road to peace on earth still stretches far ahead. The difficulties are great, the hazards grim. But here we know we must go forward yard by yard, and make a sure place in the world for our way of life.

Second, we went together.

Many of us were isolated, but we never felt alone. We were a great alliance and a united family party. No man doubted the skill, valour, or loyalty to comrades of those who fought beside him or supplied his needs. None were risked without cause; none were lost without sorrow. The Cross upon our shield, and on our hospitals, and on our graves told us to Whom they mattered most of all: as members of a larger and more lasting family than ours.

And so we went forward together. Our friends whose names are written here went forward together with us, or guarded our advance. Without them the task could not have been completed. With them, the thing that seemed impossible was done, because we trusted one another, and worked together each for all and all for each.

They witness to a truth which will not change: the tasks which seem so formidable will always yield to the many-muscled strength of unity. The lesson is that friendly emulation to do best in achievement, in service, in self-sacrifice will open any road. And the proof of that lesson is here.

Third, we went forward together to victory.

We fought as servants of a cause and in a faith that was right. We had something beyond price to save and we meant to save it. It was well expressed by a soldier of the Eighth Army in an anonymous poem:

"Peace for the kids, our brothers freed,
A kinder world, a cleaner breed."

We all had some picture in our mind of a free country, of home or village where we counted, and where we had our say in how things went and worked with others to improve them. And this free life was our inheritance, a sacred trust for the good of all nations, and the attempt to take it from us must be shattered.

We meant to win outright. And win we did. And why did we win? I think for two reasons.

First, because we lived in faith and not in fear. We saw the goal ahead and never took our eyes from it.

Second, because we did not deal in wishful thinking. We trained and disciplined ourselves to offer to the cause toughness of character, skill at our job, and willingness to die. We asked to win, not by miracle or favour, but by being better and doing better than our foes.

And that is the way to win to-day, as it was 12 years ago. It is not trusting Providence, but contempt of it to offer for any victory a lesser price than other men will pay. Victory goes to the highest bidder in courage, skill, and self-sacrifice—

and in all such virtues as Providence respects and honours. Victory goes to those who are prepared to fight for it and by their virtues deserve it. Listen again to the soldier of the Eighth Army, who wrote thus :

" That when I fall—if fall I must—
My soul may triumph in the dust."

My friends, we have travelled far since Alamein. But the journey is not ended nor is the long march complete ; freedom and our Country have not yet reached their goal. Times and scenes have changed. But to-day, in the names of those who lie here, let us affirm that we will carry on in the same spirit that animated them. In the power of that spirit we crossed deserts and seas. And under God, the one continuing Captain of all fighting men who are valiant for truth, let us dedicate the comradeship of the Desert to serve the British flag and carry it across whatever barriers still bar the way to the broad lands of friendship among men.

And let us remember when all these things are said and done that one great fact, the greatest fact, remains supreme and unassailable. It is this.

There are in this world things that are true and things that are false ; there are ways that are right and ways that are wrong ; men good, and bad. And on one side or the other we must take our stand ; one, or the other, we must serve.

A great commander once dismissed his troops after a long campaign with these words :

" Choose you this day whom ye will serve ; as for me and my house, we
will serve the Lord " (*Joshua 24*, verse 15).

And thinking over the deeds here done, and the spirit which moved in the men who did them, I can only bid you God-speed with words equally famous, equally true :

" Not unto us, O Lord, not unto us,
But unto thy Name give the praise."

(*Psalms 115*, verse 1. Prayer Book version).

FLIGHT REFUELLING

ITS DEVELOPMENT AND CURRENT USE

By CAPTAIN NORMAN MACMILLAN, M.C., A.F.C., A.F.R.A.E.S.

REFUELLING in flight is standard operational practice in the United States Air Force to-day. It has been adopted by the United States Navy for use with aircraft carriers. The Royal Air Force has not hitherto employed flight refuelling in operational flying, but has confined its use to experimental and development tests. The Royal Navy does not use flight refuelling at all.

It is curious to find so wide a difference in the use of flight refuelling between two nations, tied, as they are, so closely in military aviation.

Is there, then, a difference in military air policy between our two nations? If so, it must spring from a divergence in national policy. If this is so, it were wise to make an examination of the sources of divergence, for there can be little doubt that for an unknown number of years to come the destinies of the British and American peoples must march together.

Since the end of the 1939-45 War, the fundamental differences between the U.K. and U.S. in acquisitions of air matériel for air force and naval aviation have been the American employment of the heaviest types of bomber and the use of airborne refuelling. Probably these two are more closely connected than may at first appear, and aim at a common military policy.

Refuelling in flight began in the United States in 1923 and, except for a single experiment in France late that year, all early airborne refuelling trials were American.

During the first experiments, Major H. H. Arnold (U.S.A.A.F. Chief of Staff in the 1939-45 War) was in command of Rockwell Field, San Diego, where, after preliminary trials lasting from the preceding Spring, 1st Lieutenants L. H. Smith and J. P. Richter flew 37½ hours on 27th-28th August, 1923. They covered 3,293 miles, orbiting a 50-km. course non-stop, and set up 14 new world records in a two-seat 400 h.p. Liberty-engined De Havilland 4.B. Similar aircraft were used as tankers (carrying 50 feet of hose with a quick-acting valve) to feed fuel by gravity from directly overhead. Special fuel tanks were fitted in the tankers behind the rear cockpit. On 25th October, 1923, the team flew non-stop from Canada to Mexico in just under 12½ hours by air refuelling twice on the journey.

Nothing more was done until 1929, when Major Carl Spaatz (post-1939-45 War U.S.A.F. Chief of Staff) commanded a crew of five in the U.S. Army Air Corps Fokker monoplane "Question Mark", which, after leaving Los Angeles airfield, flew for 150 hours non-stop by receiving fuel in flight from two Douglas biplanes.

The "Question Mark" record flight started off the stunt civilian pilots in the United States, who then vied to break one another's records. New duration records by flight refuelling were made nine times in 1929. The year closed with D. Jackson and F. O'Brine having flown for 420 hours in a 170 h.p. Curtiss Robin monoplane without a landing. Next Summer, the same pair flew from St. Louis on 21st July and landed again on 17th August after passing 647½ hours continuously in the air. This sort of flight had no military value, although big money from prizes and advertising accrued to the successful participants.

The scene then changed to England.

Squadron Leader R. L. R. Atcherley (now Air Vice-Marshal) visited the U.S. in 1930 to engage in the National air races. He saw something of the flight refuelling flights, and on his return began to experiment. He patented international rights for a new and better method of making contact between tanker and receiver aircraft. The Air Ministry refused him permission to attempt to gain the duration record with its use. Improvements were made to the Atcherley system during 1934 at the Royal Aircraft Establishment.

The essence of this method was for the receiver aircraft to trail a line about 300 feet long with a grapnel at its free end. The tanker flew across above this line, suspending a 100 foot weighted line from its fuselage. The grapnel caught the tanker's line. The receiver crew then hauled in both lines and the tanker's hose which was attached to the inner end of its line. Later improvements included a drogue to haul the hose instead of manpower, a safety break link in the inter-connection between the aircraft, and an automatic coupling for the hose nozzle which simultaneously operated the fuel tank valve.

In 1932, Sir Alan Cobham began to experiment in flight refuelling with two D.H.9 aeroplanes, supplemented in the following year by a Handley Page W.10 obsolete airliner. In September, 1934, with Squadron Leader W. Helmore, he attempted to fly non-stop from England to India in an Airspeed Courier, refuelling after take-off over Malta, Alexandria, and Basra. The system was simple. Helmore held the hose nozzle into the Courier's fuel tank by hand. Failure of a throttle control after refuelling over Malta impelled a forced landing on the island, and the abandonment of the flight.

In 1935, the American brothers A. and F. Key took off in a Curtiss Robin with Wright Whirlwind engine on 4th June, and landed again at Meridian, Mississippi, on 1st July. They were continuously airborne for 653½ hours, and received 400 air deliveries of fuel, oil, and food.

In 1936, Imperial Airways, Ltd., entered into partnership with Cobham in founding Flight Refuelling, Ltd. Later it was believed that flight refuelling should be handled by a fuel company, and Shell bought the firm. But Shell gave up before final success was achieved, and Cobham took over the task again.

During this period, there were no aircraft with sufficient range to bridge the North Atlantic safely with either mails or passengers. Imperial Airways experimented with the catapult ship, the Mayo pick-a-back seaplane, and flight refuelling as competitive methods of increasing range. Flight refuelling proved the superior method, and in August, 1939, Imperial Airways began its first scheduled weekly North Atlantic air mail service. Sixteen crossings were made by two special Short flying-boats named "Cabot" and "Caribou". Once the west wind was so strong that no fuel was needed on an eastbound flight, but the other 15 crossings were dependent on the Harrow tankers. The 1939-45 War ended these trials. The R.A.F. took over the two flying-boats, and they were lost by bombing after flying a reconnaissance party to Harstad, north Norway, in May, 1940.

Early in 1944, the foreseeable defeat of Germany introduced the possible redeployment of R.A.F. Bomber Command against Japan, whose defeat was then estimated for 1947. It was found that the British bombers' range was insufficient to reach Japanese targets from available bases. The only means to increase their range was by flight refuelling. Cobham's company was asked to prepare and install 500 sets of equipment for tankers and 500 for receivers in Lancaster and Lincoln

bombers for a code-named "Tiger Force". This force was never deployed, because of the earlier surrender of Japan, and production of the refuelling sets was cancelled soon after it had begun.

After the war, the Ministry of Civil Aviation devoted £100,000 to a series of airline flight refuelling trials. In December, 1946, the preliminary tests were made over the English Channel, by day and night. In 1947, trials were made between London and Bermuda with British South American Airways Lancastrian passenger aircraft. The war development of radar made much easier the contacts of tanker and receiver aircraft over the ocean, in all weather conditions. The airliners flew non-stop, refuelling between 200 and 500 miles north of the Azores, where the Lancaster tankers were based on Santa Maria island. Eleven return flights were made.

In the first five months of 1948, British Overseas Airways made 15 return flights between London and Montreal, with a mail/freight Liberator II refuelling from Lancastrian tankers based in Ireland, Newfoundland, and Labrador. These trials re-aroused the interest of the U.S.A.F. in flight refuelling.

The scene then changed back to the United States.

Flight refuelling had now been developed by the British company to an advanced stage of reliability. A hose-drum unit had been produced to reel in the hose by electric power, and this was carried in the tanker. The receiver aircraft lowered a weighted line. The tanker fired a line across and just ahead of the receiver's line by special gun, and the two lines became engaged by grapnel pawls. The tanker hauled in its line, and attached its hose to the receiver's line. This enabled the receiver to haul the hose across and connect its nozzle to the fuel coupling. When refuelling was completed the hose was released, and a light breaking section in the receiver's line permitted the hose to be withdrawn into the tanker and wound on to its drum. The receiver had to replace the end of its line each time it required refuelling.

At Easter, 1948, the British company sold equipment to the U.S.A.F., and in the Spring of 1949 became a contractor to it. In February, 1949, a Boeing B-50 bomber named "Lucky Lady" flew around the world non-stop in 94 hours one minute, refuelling from air tankers based in the Azores, the Persian Gulf, the Philippines, and the Hawaiian islands. At each refuelling base four B-29 tankers were stationed, two to feed fuel to the record breaker, two as emergency reserves.

This method of refuelling, known as the looped-hose system, could not be used for single-seat fighters because it required a crewman in the receiver aircraft. The U.S.A.F. asked Flight Refuelling, Ltd., to design equipment to refuel fighters. This was done in five months in the Spring of 1949. In the following Autumn the company received a large order for the conversion of B-29 Superfortress bombers to this new probe and drogue system.

In this system the tanker was equipped with a compact, retractable hose-drum unit, which reeled out hose to a length of 100 feet under the pull of a metal drogue, or open cone, mounted at the end of the hose, with its large end facing aft. The hose was wound in by electric motor, whose drive was transmitted to the drum through a fluid coupling to maintain constant torque. Within the drogue was an automatic coupling containing three spring-loaded toggles, and a spring-loaded shut-off valve. The receiver aircraft was fitted with a probe (mounted on the nose, wing, or external auxiliary tank, as convenient). The nose of this probe ended in a dome-shaped

shut-off valve, which could be opened from the pilot's cockpit by hydraulic control. Behind the valve an annular groove afforded easy engagement for the toggles.

To connect his fuel system with the tanker's the receiver pilot flew towards the cone at about five miles an hour relative forward speed, and aimed his probe into it. Lights within the cone at night made contact then as easy as by daylight. The first contact of probe with cone equalized any difference in electrical potential between the two aircraft, and brushes discharged static electricity outside the cone. The cone shape guided the probe into the coupling. As the load required to break away (effected by the receiver pilot reducing speed) was several times greater than that for entry, continuity of coupling during refuelling was assured. Any slack produced in the hose by the contact was removed by an automatic spring-roller-blind wind-in of the hose-drum.

An amber light on the rear face of the lowered hose-drum unit showed the approaching pilot that the tanker was prepared to receive contact, and a green light showed when fuel was flowing. When the receiver pilot operated his hydraulic switch he opened his probe nozzle valve; this mated with and so opened the spring-loaded valve in the coupling, thus permitting a straight-through, free flow of fuel from the tanker through the hose and probe and the receiver's fuel gallery into its tanks.

With the almost horizontal line of flow from tanker to receiver, gravity feed (used with the looped-hose system, whose 300 feet of hose permitted the tanker to fly above the receiver) was no longer possible. Power pumps now formed an integral part of the hose-unit, at first to transfer fuel at about 100/120 gallons a minute, and since then at much higher rates of flow. Anti-surge valves with automatic shut-off prevented excessive loads from developing in the system, and ensured that each tank selected by the receiver pilot would fill to its capacity without overflow or back pressure in the fuel line. The method introduced a high-pressure fuelling system, and apart from air refuelling, the British company now does a large business in providing equipment for high-pressure ground refuelling.

Intercommunication between tanker and receiver was three-channel by W/T, radar (rebecca/eureka), and R/T. When ground stations lie near the air contact fixes, long-range intercommunication between aircraft can proceed through the more powerful ground transmitters if necessary. During refuelling, R/T communication between the two aircraft makes procedure simple.

Under U.S. Government regulations, it is necessary for contractors overseas to sell their rights to the Government, or to arrange for the manufacture of products in the U.S. To meet this condition Flight Refuelling, Inc., was opened up in America.

Meanwhile, it was hardly to be expected that the U.S. aircraft industry would not act on this evidence of the value of flight refuelling. As is usual practice in the U.S.A.F., a small group of officers received authority to explore other methods of flight refuelling. They worked in conjunction with the Boeing Aircraft Company, makers of the bombers which had first been used as tankers and receivers. In sequence, the Boeing Flying Boom was developed, and made in quantity. This is a telescopic metal tube carried externally with its inner end in a special compartment in the tail of the aeroplane. Out on the boom, in the airflow, are two small aerofoils set at a high dihedral angle. Called ruddevators, these are operated from the boom compartment through a kind of pilot's control, and by the aerodynamic reaction of these surfaces the operator locates the far end of his boom in space. The receiver

aircraft is fitted with a coupling on the upper side of the nose or wing, connecting internally to its fuel system. The receiver pilot, whether bomber or fighter, flies close to the tanker and below it, while the boom operator 'flies' his boom into position, then extends the nozzle end to engage in the coupling.

The flying boom was fitted to U.S.A.F. C-97 Stratofreighter tankers. The F.84G Thunderjet production line was fitted with couplings for boom connection. B-29 Superfortresses were fitted with both looped-hose and boom connections. Some B-50's have had boom receiver couplings fitted, as have B-45 Stratojet bombers. F-86 Sabres used probes for tanking up external tanks in Korea, and F-84's were used operationally there with flight refuelling. In the Korean war, fighters were sometimes kept airborne for 14 hours instead of their normal two. Some executed four missions with one take-off.

Enough experience has now been gained to show that the flying boom appears to be limited to operational flying speeds not exceeding about 275 m.p.h. At higher speeds the ruddervators do not accurately control the boom. So far as is known the boom has not been fitted to a jet-engined tanker, nor does this appear feasible. This must also set a limitation on its operational height, hitherto not above 25,000 feet. Only one boom can be fitted to each tanker, and it is not retractable. It demands an operator at the inner end, who must be highly skilled, and should desirably be a trained pilot because he has to 'fly' the boom.

With the probe and drogue system, one tanker can trail up to four hoses, thus refuelling four fighters simultaneously when required. Any crew member (even the pilot actually flying the tanker) can operate the hose-drum unit or units by remote controls.

The top speed limitation of the probe and drogue system is not known, but it has already been successfully operated well in excess of 300 miles an hour, and at over 30,000 feet, in jet tankers.

There is no peace-time fire risk in flight refuelling at any height. Above 35,000 feet even the war operation fire risk is eliminated because the oxygen content of the atmosphere is insufficient to support combustion. This is one military advantage of high altitude refuelling. Another is that jet aircraft need not waste large quantities of fuel in descent and climb when requiring fuel.

The U.S.A.F. has made large scale exercise flights with flight-refuelled aircraft. During the critical years before western Europe's defence was strengthened, U.S.A.F. B-29 bombers were stationed in England fitted for flight refuelling and for carrying fission bombs, thereby conveying the threat of a fleet in being with deep penetration capacity. This stabilized the military situation pending the build-up of the N.A.T.O., and the provision of more modern aircraft. A single refuelling can increase the radius of operation of a bomber by about 32 per cent., which was sufficient to extend the action radius of the B-29 to 2,000 miles; while refuelling twice (on the out and home journeys) will raise the action radius by about 50 per cent.

During the Korean war, large numbers of F.84 Thunderjet fighters were ferried swiftly across the Pacific Ocean by flight refuelling. Between California and Hawaii, they received fuel over the ocean from B-50 bomber/tankers and C-97 freighter/tankers. Between Hawaii and Japan, they were similarly refuelled near Midway. In those operations one tanker supplied the fuel needs of at least two fighters for journey stages which they could not otherwise have made by air.

Transfers of wings of B-45 Stratojet bombers have been made between Florida and England, accompanied by their own transport/tanker aircraft. On the eastward journeys these jet bombers can cross the Atlantic non-stop without refuelling by taking advantage of the prevailing wind, and by starting from airfields in the extreme north-east of Maine. But they have been unable to return to the American continent without refuelling *en route*. Yet non-stop mass transfers of B-45's have been flown from England to Florida, with air tankers supplying fuel to the bombers off the north-western bulge of Africa and over the Caribbean.

For these mobile transfers, the U.S.A.F. possesses organized squadrons of air transport/tankers in its Military Air Transport Service. These squadrons can be detailed to provide military air transport or air refuelling wherever and whenever an operating squadron requires either service. Through this organization U.S.A.F. fighter and bomber units have been given an exceptional degree of mobility. They have also been given valuable extensions of duration, range, and bomb-load under operational conditions, and an overall economy of use denied to aircraft which can refuel on the ground only.

No other air force in the world has organization for flight refuelling comparable to that of the U.S.A.F. The R.A.F. made experimental operational trials with Meteor fighters in 1952, but on such a small scale, both of fighters and tankers, that the result was inconclusive. In any case the object of the test, to determine if flight refuelling could provide standing defence patrols with economy, was in itself an unsatisfactory basis on which to work, for the standing defence patrol never can be economic. At the beginning of 1954, a Canberra was equipped as a tanker to test flight refuelling at the faster speeds and greater operational heights of jet aircraft compared with piston-engined tankers. It has been published in the Press that this presages flight refuelling for British V-bombers, but there is no official information on this subject at the time of writing.

No British or American flight refuelling equipment has been supplied to Russia. But, before invitations to the Society of British Aircraft Constructors' air display were withdrawn from Russian military representatives, Russian guests had minutely examined the British flight refuelling equipment exhibited there.

Jane's *All the World's Aircraft* for 1954-55 states that some TU-4's (Russian copies of the B-29) were observed as early as in 1949 to have been modified as flying tankers for flight refuelling, and that the LA-17 jet fighter has flight refuelling valves in its wing; but the system used is not mentioned.

American Aviation for 11th October, 1954, reported Red Air Force possession of five long-range reconnaissance squadrons, each with ten aircraft including two air tankers. Two were on Sakhalin Island, one at Petropavlovsk, one near Anadyr, and the fifth on one of the Novosibirski islands. Some squadrons were equipped with TU-4, others with Mi-13RD aircraft. All were fitted with Diesel engines modified from the Junkers Jumo 223 and 224 designs, giving them reconnaissance still air durations of 8000 and 9000 miles respectively.

The same source states that the Russians are experimenting with various flight refuelling systems, including one similar to the British, and that tanker aircraft are specially modified versions of the TU-4 and TU-70. Tankers are also assigned to bomber units of the Russian strategic air command, and to LA-17 and MIG-19 escort fighter units. One receiver system has a retractable probe located in the leading edge of the left wing.

American Aviation also states that the Soviet reconnaissance aircraft are capable of flying over Alaska and even reaching San Francisco, and some reports suggest that they may already have done so.

The U.S. Navy has adopted the probe and drogue refuelling system, with the twin-engined Savage fleet bomber as a tanker. This bomber is larger than any used in the R.N., and it has the fuel capacity to refuel fleet fighters effectively. It is considered that the extension of range and duration afforded these fighters will not only improve their operational qualities but will permit longer standoff during landing-on periods, and so save aircraft short of fuel from their past risks of ditching. The R.N. has not employed flight refuelling even experimentally.

Thus, although flight refuelling began in the United States, it was really developed to the point of military utility in Britain, chiefly through the rugged persistence of Sir Alan Cobham and his associates. It is therefore the more strange that the current positions in these two countries should be so divergent operationally. This was the problem set out above.

In his *The Influence of Sea Power upon History*, Mahan enumerates the principal conditions which have affected the sea power of nations as: first, geographical position; second, physical conformation, including, as connected therewith, natural productions and climate; third, extent of territory; fourth, number of population; fifth, character of the people; sixth, character of the Government, including therein the national institutions. To these, in modern times, might be added as a seventh condition: industrial development, including therein scientific research and technological and productive capacities.

These things give a clue to American acceptance of flight refuelling for military purposes before Britain or any other State. Geographically, America faces long external lines of communication. She faces three possible hostile fronts, north, east, and west. Her advanced bases lie at from 2,500 to 5,000 miles from her own shores. Her physical conformation favours internal air communications. Her commercial air fleet exceeds 1,100 aircraft, her business executive and liaison private air fleet numbers ten times as many, her private owner air strength is about 100,000. She is building up a mighty and peaceful civil air strength on which her military air might can rest and from which it can draw strength in emergency. Her population is about three times that of Britain's, and is expanding rapidly. The characteristic of her people is to drive for an objective. She is less inclined to rest upon her history than to carve out her history for the future from to-day.

Is this a situation which Britain can afford to accept if she is determined to remain the Great Power which she has every possibility of continuing to be? If not, she must be prepared to meet all emergencies, to travel the same military road as the United States, and be ready to back her determination with the right tools.

No strategic bomber fleet having a striking radial range of less than 3,000 miles is now adequate in current world military conditions. Such range can be obtained only from very heavy bombers of the 350,000 lb. gross weight class without flight refuelling. Only the United States has such costly aircraft. She has certain special considerations in regard to home defence, and these heavy intercontinental bombers were ordered to meet requirements envisaged before she took up modern flight refuelling.

Britain can meet her own requirements with less costly aircraft, of not more than about half that gross weight, by the incorporation of flight refuelling as standard practice. To do so, however, calls for the creation of a fleet of air transport/tankers within R.A.F. Transport Command, able to give, as and when demanded, the mobility, range, and duration needed by both Fighter and Bomber Commands to meet the current and immediate future military conditions of a vigorous conception of strategy. And to do so efficiently, the transport/tankers of Transport Command would have to be powered by supercharged turbojet engines for high altitude refuelling. Finally, the flight refuelling equipment used by Britain and America should be of common type so that the aircraft of either nation can be refuelled by the tankers of either air fleet.

MAU MAU

By MAJOR G. W. CROKER, M.C., THE LOYAL REGIMENT

IN July, 1953, when I was posted at short notice from the 1st Battalion to an Intelligence appointment in Kenya, I little realized what an interesting time was ahead of me. That I was to become partly involved in one of the most ambitious operations in colonial police history was quite unforeseen at that time—but more of that later.

When I arrived in Nairobi early in September, my only knowledge of the Kikuyu tribe and Mau Mau had been gleaned from a book studied on the flight out. From this it was plain that the Kikuyu were the dominant native tribe in the country and that, in the past, their great enemies were the Masai, with whom they constantly had clashes when cattle raids took place into each other's territory. Within the tribe itself, the communities were based on topographical features, i.e., each ridge formed a community of its own not unlike the Scottish clan system. Family ties played an important part and one member of a family, however distantly related, was bound to help another member should he seek assistance. Government within these communities was carried out by the Elders and their word was law with the younger members, whilst the age groups, which formed the basis of this system, centred around the native circumcision ceremony. In other words, all the young men who were circumcised together at about the age of 14 formed an age group, with a common affinity and responsibility to help each other. They, at a later stage, became the Elders of the community.

Early in the XXth Century, immigration of Europeans into the country increased, consisting mainly of missionaries and farmers. The missionaries started to alter the old order of tribal customs and beliefs, whilst the farmers acquired—but only to a small extent—land previously farmed in an uneconomic fashion by the Kikuyu. As western ideas took a hold, so gradually the discipline and unity of the clan system throughout the tribe lessened. As more and more Europeans came out and the native population grew in numbers, the land problem increased and a Royal Commission was sent out from Britain to investigate the varying claims. By the end of the 1939-1945 War, therefore, broadly, there was the situation of the European settled areas being in the Rift Valley, a major topographical feature running north from Nairobi for about 70 miles and then spreading eastwards north of the Aberdare Hills as far as Mt. Kenya; while east of the Aberdares and south and east of Mt. Kenya was the native reserve area, where the bulk of the African population lived and farmed.

The Kikuyu, being the tribe which considered it had suffered most from the arrival of the Europeans and also being more intelligent than many of the other tribes, saw cause for discontent. Out of this discontent, political societies were formed aimed at righting their alleged grievances. From time to time these were proscribed, but, nevertheless, the network spread throughout the tribe until, in October, 1952, the Kenya Government realized the proportions it had reached. On the 22nd of the month, over 100 of the known leaders were arrested under Operation "Jock Scott" and a state of emergency declared. The dozen or so other leaders who escaped arrest, together with minor members, then took to the forests of the Aberdares, and militant Mau Mau, as we came to know it, was born.

Throughout the succeeding months these few in the forests increased their numbers by voluntary recruits from the native reserve areas and from young men in

Nairobi. Their efforts were largely directed also to obtaining arms and ammunition. Most of these came from Nairobi, where thugs carried out attacks on individuals and stole revolvers and ammunition from unattended cars. The most successful haul, however, was from a raid by a gang on Naivasha Police Station half-way through 1953. The strength in the forests increased and gangs were formed, based both on the Aberdares and Mt. Kenya. At the head of these gangs personalities began to appear, who assumed military titles ranging from general to lance corporal, as well as high sounding aliases such as China, Montgomery, etc. !

When the emergency started, apart from a small Intelligence staff at G.H.Q., the Special Branch of the Kenya Police was responsible for all Intelligence throughout the Colony. Although this Branch expanded considerably, there was more to do than the police could cope with. In August, 1953, therefore, army officers started to arrive from the U.K., and were posted in to work under the Special Branch as a Military Intelligence increment. They were charged with the particular responsibility of dealing with operational Intelligence of the Mau Mau gangs, as required by the operational commanders. In each district and province, where there was a Special Branch officer, an army officer sat alongside and the two worked hand in glove seeking information and trying to build up the picture of the gangs and their organization.

It was unorthodox intelligence work with no fixed enemy locations and, in general, a population who were reluctant to give any information to help the security forces, even if it might remove the threat of a gang from their own area. As a result, very little advanced information came in except from a few police informers, and much of the work consisted of gang identification after an incident had taken place. Gradually, however, an enemy 'order of battle' (if such it could be called) was built up, which gave some indication of the usual areas favoured by particular gangs.

It soon became clear from this that the outstanding enemy personality amongst the gangs in Mt. Kenya and the neighbouring reserve areas was 'General' China. If he could be killed or captured, it was believed that it would have a marked effect on the Mt. Kenya gangs and the local population ; China, therefore, became one of the main Intelligence targets.

Employed in Special Branch Headquarters was Superintendent X——, who had been born and brought up in Kenya, and who had a wide knowledge of the Kikuyu. He and Assistant Superintendent Y—— of Nyeri, in whose area China operated, were the police officers primarily concerned and they set about establishing the necessary contacts, whom it was hoped would lead them and security forces to 'General' China. In the last three months of 1953, close tabs were kept on China's movements, and on more than one occasion he was missed by about only an hour in various places in the reserve. He never stayed long in any one place, and the information which came in had to be acted on promptly if there was to be a chance of catching him.

All this time the strength of Mau Mau was increasing and they became more and more organized. Home-made firearms began to appear, which were extremely crude at first and seldom effective, but gradually models made their appearance with proper bolts and firing pins.

Suddenly, into the picture of growing Mau Mau strength came a report over the wireless on 15th January, 1954—"China has been wounded and captured." I went down to Karatina with other Special Branch officers to confirm the identification

and found the most extraordinary scenes. Crowds of natives had gathered round the M.I. tent in which the doctor was treating China's wounds and more were streaming in from all sides; the news spread like wildfire throughout the reserve.

China's capture was the result of a normal clash between security forces and a large gang and, as his wound was not serious, it was certain that he would be brought to trial and probably sentenced to death if found guilty. However, being one of the two top leaders of Mau Mau, there was a great deal of information to be obtained from him, if he could be persuaded to talk. Superintendent X— was given the task. Straightforward questioning got nowhere, but by discussing Kikuyu aims and playing on China's fanaticism, after 68 hours of questioning, the information we were after had been elicited. The interrogation report covered 44 pages, and revealed a far greater strength and organization on military lines than had been credited to Mau Mau from other intelligence reports. This put the strength of the gangs on Mt. Kenya and in the reserve at about 5,000, which was a formidable figure. Many of these were armed with native weapons, but, nevertheless, there was an organization for making firearms, which was rapidly overtaking the supply of ammunition available to Mau Mau by thefts and purchase from various sources. Had more ammunition been available, China said the Mau Mau attacks would have been even more widespread. The figure of 5,000 did not include the enemy organization in the Aberdares under Dedan Kimathi, of which China had no knowledge.

During his talks with X—, China made it quite clear that he was prepared to die. However, he hinted that before that happened, he felt his influence might be of some use in trying to induce a surrender of the gangs who had lately been under his command. X— reported this to his superior officers and said that he considered it was possible. It was discussed at the highest level and eventually the decision was taken that such an opportunity must be seized. X—, with his vast knowledge of the Kikuyu and his wide contacts, was clearly the person to try this, and so he was put in charge of the venture, which was given the name of Operation "Wedgewood"—an apt choice in view of the name of the person who had first mentioned the idea. Although under the strictest veil of secrecy at first, before long the venture was to become headline news.

A wooden hut in Nyeri, near China's operational area, was selected as the headquarters of the venture. Barbed wire defences were erected and a company of K.A.R. brought in as guards. When all was ready, China was put into an African police constable's uniform in his cell in Nairobi, made to carry a heavy cash box, to which he was chained, and smuggled out to a waiting plane and flown to Nyeri. For the next three months his home was the wooden hut, with at least one European officer constantly with him. Superintendent X— and Assistant Superintendent Y— set up an office in the same building and started work.

The objective of the two Special Branch officers, with the help of China, was to establish contact with the main terrorist leaders still at large, put across to them the idea of surrender, and so overcome their natural suspicion of anything initiated by the Government that they would be prepared to come in, under safe conduct, and discuss the matter with representatives of the Governor and the C.-in-C. The last was clearly going to be the most difficult part of the task.

Under the direction of the Special Branch officers, China wrote the first of a series of letters to the terrorist leaders, putting his ideas to them for stopping the fighting. The main argument was the hardship being inflicted on the population in the reserve

as a result of the terrorists' activities, for there was little doubt that the inhabitants were beginning to feel the pressure of Government measures and were getting a bit fed up.

To get these letters to the terrorist leaders, the Mau Mau system of couriers throughout the reserve was used; I went out on one of these occasions. We set out early in the morning as an impressive convoy; leading was a Landrover with five European police inspectors, all armed with Patchett guns. Following the Landrover was a Staghound armoured car, on which I was travelling with X—— and Y——; out of sight inside the car was China, dressed in jungle-green uniform, and his European guard. Following us was a platoon of K.A.R. in a three-ton vehicle—together an imposing array. We wound our way through the reserve towards the forest of Mt. Kenya. About two miles from the forest edge we stopped at a native village indicated by China. X—— and Y—— went off on their own into the village and presently came back with an old man. He expressed ignorance of everything Mau Mau of course, until China stuck his head out of the turret of the armoured car and greeted him; then, and only then, was the old man only too willing to help and pass on the letter which China gave him. This example typifies the distrust of anything European by the native.

Practically every day these excursions took place throughout the native reserve around Mt. Kenya, attempting to establish contact with the enemy leaders and seek their reactions to the proposals. The terrorists were given a post office box number to which to reply, and an anxious period ensued as successive letters were sent to them. It was fairly certain at first that letters received would be viewed with the deepest suspicion and probably torn up as being Government propaganda. However, when further letters followed in China's own handwriting, it was hoped that this suspicion would be gradually allayed. Such proved to be the case, and gradually one or two replies began to come in, which were not unfavourable.

Up to this time the strictest security measures had been imposed, but inevitably rumours started and finally the Government had to make a short press release, stating what was being attempted and the use that was being made of China. At the same time, it was announced that China's death sentence had been commuted to life imprisonment. Then the storm broke, and widespread and caustic comments were made by the European settlers of the use of China and his reprieve from hanging. They seemed to ignore the fact that it was hoped to achieve a surrender of a large part of the enemy forces, and thereby help to shorten the emergency and remove the constant threat under which people of all races in Kenya were living.

The letters being sent to the terrorist leaders seemed to be having some effect, because on 6th March, 1954, 'General' Tanganyika, to whom some of the letters had been addressed, was picked up whilst on his way to surrender and talk to China. He confirmed what was already believed, that many of the terrorists wished to surrender, and so he was set to work with China to send out letters in his own name as well.

Despite the declared interest in the replies from the terrorists in having talks with Government representatives, it was difficult to try and pin them down to the final act. As mentioned earlier, the biggest obstacle was to overcome their fear that it was a trap set by the Government to catch them. Throughout this period, X—— and Y—— had been doing their utmost to overcome this, at great personal risk, by going out unescorted to meet terrorists both in the reserve and on the edge of the forest; they were, in fact, in daily touch with the enemy.

An attempt had to be made to bring the matter to a head, and so, on 13th March, letters were sent to the terrorists to say that Government representatives would be at a nominated place in the reserve on 20th March, at 1100 hours, to meet representatives of the terrorists. Late on 19th March, the Chief of Staff, representing the C.-in-C., and the Chief Native Commissioner, representing the Governor, flew up to Nyeri ready to go out the following day.

Next morning, the party, including X—— and Y——, set out from Nyeri with an escort and the armoured car. All police and home guards were given strict orders to stand by in their camps, and wireless silence was imposed except for the Government party in case they had urgent information to pass. In the provincial operations room, the Brigade Major of the 70th (East Africa) Brigade, was on listening watch on the wireless and the air of expectancy increased as 1100 hours approached. The party reported arrival at the rendezvous, where everything seemed to be quiet. As the minutes ticked by no reports were received of anyone appearing, but the party still waited. Noon had arrived without any result and a feeling of anti-climax spread. Eventually, at 1300 hours, it was decided that no one was coming and the party returned. It transpired later that the terrorist representatives had been within 200 yards of the rendezvous, but, seeing the armoured car, still believed it was a trap, and they dispersed.

This failure was a disappointment, but it was typical of the ups and downs throughout the whole venture.

After this set-back it was decided to give the terrorists one final opportunity to show a desire to meet Government representatives. Further letters were sent out saying that a meeting had to take place before 31st March, or else intensified military operations would take place. It was considered doubtful whether the terrorists would respond to this, but the final offer had to be made.

No reply was received from the terrorists by 27th March, and it seemed that everything was finished and arrangements were made to end the venture. Then a dramatic event occurred after lunch on 27th March, which was typical of the whole incredible affair. A truck from the 7th K.A.R., driven by a British other rank, was going along a road in the reserve, when a native attempted to stop it. The driver took no notice at first, but the native was so insistent that he stopped and the native demanded that the driver put handcuffs on him. When told that there was no reason why the driver should and anyway he had not got any, the native then said: "I am 'General' Kaleba, take me into Nyeri quickly so that I can talk to 'General' China about surrender". The full import of this can only be appreciated when it is realized that Kaleba took over on Mt. Kenya when China was captured.

This startling turn of events renewed hope of a successful outcome to the venture. Very early next morning, having spoken to China, Kaleba went back again to the forest to assure the leaders that no trap was intended and to arrange for them to come to a meeting. By mid-day that day, he walked up to the special compound in Nyeri quite openly and said: "I am back, the terrorist representatives will be ready on the edge of the forest on Tuesday morning (30th March) at 0700 hours to be picked up and brought into Nyeri to talk to the Government". It transpired that Kaleba had got back so quickly because, after meeting the other leaders, he had walked up to the 7th K.A.R. 'as bold as brass' and demanded a truck to take him back to Nyeri—because he was "... now a Government servant, working for peace!"

It was decided this time not to risk frightening the terrorists by taking out the armoured car to pick them up. Before it was light, therefore, a small party in two Landrovers, with no additional escort, left Nyeri. As they made their way through the silent reserve towards the foothills of Mt. Kenya, dawn broke, and wisps of mist could be seen in the river valleys. It was an eerie sensation for this small party as they approached the rendezvous, not knowing whether at any moment they might be ambushed in circumstances which would give them little chance. At the rendezvous, Kaleba got out of the leading vehicle and walked to a nearby clump of bushes, with everyone keyed up. As he approached, five figures got up—the delegates were there. The majority got into the leading Landrover with X—— and no escort, and the other Landrover was 300 yards behind. As a final gesture of confidence, X—— turned round to one of the terrorists in the back and gave him his Patchett carbine to hold. It takes a brave man to do such a thing, but it banished any remaining fears the terrorists had.

The party returned to Nyeri and at 0930 hours, in pairs, with one unarmed police officer, the terrorists went into the Provincial Commissioner's office for talks with the Government representatives. It was all done so openly that few people realized who the six smartly-dressed natives were—that in fact they were men that police and security forces had been seeking for the last 18 months.

The meeting, behind closely guarded doors, lasted for three hours. At the conclusion, the terrorist leaders, whose reaction had not been unfavourable, were taken out again and dropped off in the reserve. Their task was now to go round the gangs and tell them what had transpired at the meeting and to select further representatives for another meeting on 10th April, at which details of the surrender would be decided. To assist them in their task, the terrorists were told that they would have freedom of movement in the forest of Mt. Kenya, and no troops or police would operate there during the period.

Thus there followed another time of anxious waiting to see what transpired. As was expected, considerable gang movements took place and, from an Intelligence point of view, we tried to keep track of these and draw our deductions as to their import in relation to the main venture. Then, on 5th April, X—— received the information that all the delegates at the Nyeri meeting had been placed under arrest by a group of terrorists, led by 'General' Gatamuki, who were against surrender. This was bad news and boded ill for the success of the venture, for it was essential that the terrorist leaders should have freedom of movement in the forest to contact the gang leaders and tell them what the Government representatives had said. Intensive efforts were made by X—— and Y—— to find out the position, and to this end they spent the whole of the night of 6th April at about 11,000 ft. on Mt. Kenya, right in the enemy stronghold, contacting terrorists.

At this time, information had been received that a gang of about 70 was assembling in the reserve about two miles from the forest. It was believed to be one of the dissident groups and so it was decided to put in an operation against them. Troops moved into a cordon position before first light in pouring rain, and, as dawn broke, the terrorists, realizing that they were surrounded, tried to fight their way out. Twenty-five were killed and nine taken prisoner, including 'General' Gatamuki. He was rushed into Special Branch, Nyeri, where he spoke to X—— and to China. It then became clear that, although the target had been a perfectly legitimate one as the concentration was in the reserve, it was unfortunate that it had been attacked.

It appears that the report of the arrest of the terrorist delegates who attended the Nyeri meeting was quite correct, but that, in fact, they had been released after 48 hours, having talked round their captors to thoughts of surrender. Thereafter, gang leaders had gone out to collect their gangs and bring them to the forest near Nyeri by the 10th April, ready for the second meeting with the Government representatives and subsequent surrender. By the 7th April about 2,000 terrorists were in the forest and about another 800 were due to arrive on 8th/9th April. It was one group of these, who, quite incorrectly, were in the reserve where they had not been given sanctuary, who were attacked on 7th April. Although, being there, they were a legitimate target, their intention was peace and they considered that they should not have been attacked. At once all the old suspicions about the Government sprang to life again and they considered they had been betrayed.

The chances of the second meeting taking place on 10th April and subsequent large-scale surrenders now seemed rather poor. However, arrangements went on as usual and propaganda was stepped up, including the use of aircraft fitted with loudspeakers, which flew over the area where the terrorists were thought to be.

The arrangements for picking up the terrorist leaders to attend the meeting were the same as before. X— and Y— were to go out before dawn with just one other Landrover and no large escort to the rendezvous, where the terrorist leaders were to be at 0700 hours. In view of the incident earlier in the week, however, there was a very great possibility that the party might be ambushed as a reprisal. It was not a happy position for X— and Y— to be in, and although nearby troops were alerted to go to their aid and a wireless set was concealed in X—'s Landrover, more obvious security precautions could not be taken, in case the terrorist leaders still came and were frightened off by a show of force.

When X— and his party set off at 0530 hours on 10th April, it was pouring with rain and all the roads, which have a murram surface, were a sea of mud. Wireless silence had been imposed on all other stations, so that, should the party wish to send an emergency call, they had the air free to do so. The Brigade Commander was on hand in the provincial operations room and there was an atmosphere of tense anxiety which increased as the clock approached 0700 hrs. Nothing happened until 0730 hrs., when X— came up on the air to say that no one had turned up and the party was coming back. There was a sense of relief that they were safe, coupled with disappointment that, as had been feared, the high aims of the venture were not to be achieved.

So ended three months' untiring work by X— and Y—, a period which contained moments of deep pessimism and high optimism, and which finally fell down on the suspicions which many of the natives in Kenya have of the Government.

What of the future? A prolongation of the struggle lies ahead, in which the terrorists have the forests of Mt. Kenya and the Aberdares as their main sanctuaries when they are under pressure in the reserve. On the credit side our Intelligence of the enemy has been improved by the weeks of work put in by X— and Y—, but it still remains an unorthodox and extremely difficult 'Intelligence battle.'

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AREA DEFENCE IN JUNGLE WARFARE

By MAJOR-GENERAL H. L. DAVIES, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.

CONSIDERABLE thought had already been given to area defence in the Middle East theatres before Japan entered the war. The theory of defended areas, tank-proofed and self-sufficient, with mobile striking forces operating behind and between the areas, was already *de rigueur* in the Western Desert and the highly successful detachment at Tobruk, with its manifest influence on the northern flank of the Axis armies, was widely recognized.

A study of the technique of area defence was undertaken at the Higher War School in New Delhi in the Autumn of 1941, and it was fully appreciated that, during the defensive phase of any campaign, when the initiative lies with the enemy, this technique possesses very great potentialities. Unfortunately, as so often happens, false lessons were occasionally drawn from an incomplete understanding of the requisites for successful area defence, and I recollect coming across a battalion, positioned to deny the main approaches into east Burma through the Shan States, which had dug itself in on the Thai border and whose commander informed me that he intended to make a 'Tobruk' of his position and to remain 'put' in any circumstances. The fact that no mobile counter-offensive reserves existed within 50 miles of his position, and that once his exiguous road communications were cut there would be no method of supplying his troops, had apparently not occurred to him. It might appear that even to this day such elementary errors can be made, if we are to assess the tragedy of Dien Bien Phu in terms of successful area defence. The ideas of that battalion commander in Burma in 1941, and of the commander who evolved the tactical conception of Dien Bien Phu, seem to have had much in common.

When the Japanese invaded Malaya in December, 1941, our troops in that theatre were much dispersed. Brigade groups were located at various places on the long eastern coast line where attempts to land might be expected, and reliance was placed on normal overland communications leading north from Singapore.

As things turned out, the command of both air and sea passed very early to the enemy, and the vigorous and traditional tactics of the Japanese, which implied continual infiltration, by-passing, and outflanking movements, rapidly led to the necessity for hurried and unco-ordinated withdrawals. These not only rendered futile any coherent defensive plan, with the employment of properly constituted mobile reserves, but also greatly impaired the morale of the troops. Much has been written about the inability of our troops in Malaya to withstand the Japanese offensive, but, in the circumstances in which they were placed, without command of either the air or the sea and dependent entirely on extended and easily cut road communications, there was only one possible conclusion to this campaign and it really would have made no difference at all if every man had died fighting where he stood, as a great many of them, in fact, did. It was the conception that was wrong, not the troops' fighting capacity. The only possible method of saving the base at Singapore would have been to re-establish command of the sea and to organize a tightly knit area defence in a bridgehead covering Singapore with all available resources, including a high proportion of properly organized mobile counter-attack troops. Even then, to be reasonably effective, it would have been necessary to have

deployed an adequate air force on dispersed airfields within the defended bridgehead. As these desiderata were quite impossible in the circumstances, the fall of Singapore became inevitable.

A very similar sequence of events took place when the Japanese invaded Burma in February, 1942. The same enforced withdrawals, with their inevitable effect on the morale of the troops, occurred in the absence of adequate mobile reserves to counter the Japanese tactics of infiltration and outflankment.

In this campaign, however, one major mistake was corrected, and instead of recoiling on to the untenable base of Rangoon, the retreating army moved northward towards the Indian frontier, thereby retaining its freedom of manoeuvre.

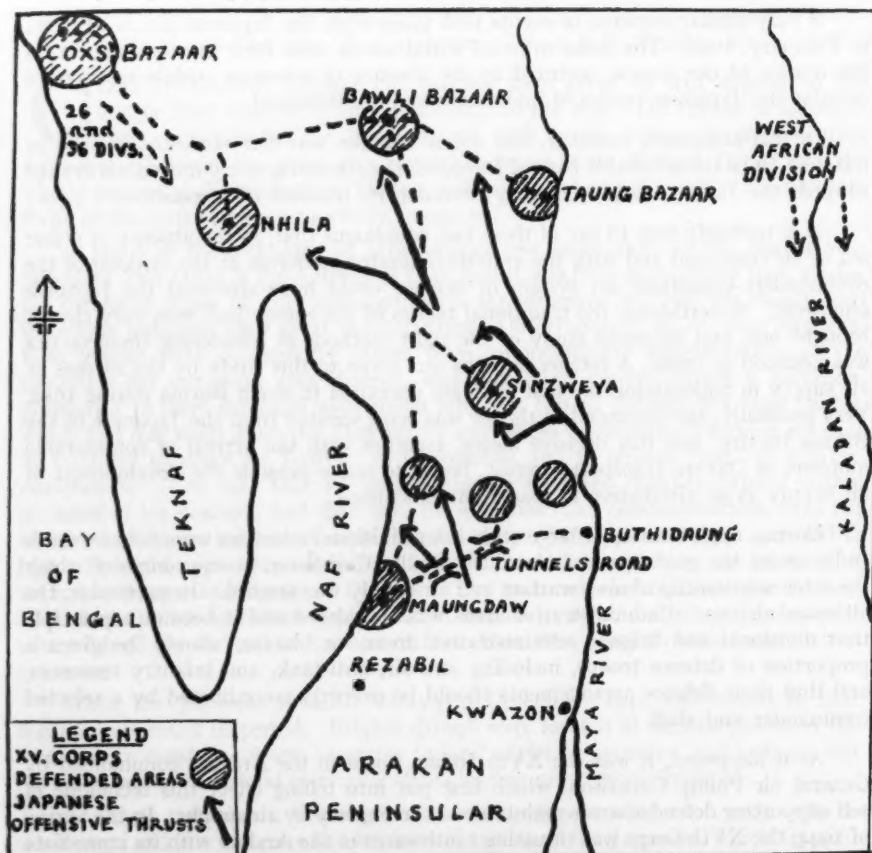
It is probably true to say of these two campaigns that, in the absence of either sea or air command and with the extremely limited resources at the disposal of the commanders concerned, no system of defence could have stemmed the Japanese offensives. Nevertheless, the traditional tactics of the enemy had been very clearly brought out, and intensive study of the right methods of countering these tactics was initiated in India. A further impetus was given to this study by the success of air supply in maintaining the first Wingate operation in north Burma during 1942. Very gradually, the command of the air was being wrested from the Japanese in the Burma theatre, and this decisive factor, together with the arrival of considerable numbers of Dakota transport aircraft, began to make possible the development of air supply as an alternative to road communications.

During 1943, a series of large scale inter-divisional exercises were held in south India under the guidance of General Sir Phillip Christison, in the course of which the inter-relationship of area warfare and air supply was studied. In particular, the all round defence of administrative areas was considered and it became a principle that divisional and brigade administrative areas, or 'boxes,' should be given a proportion of defence troops, including anti-air, anti-tank, and infantry resources, and that their defence arrangements should be properly co-ordinated by a selected commander and staff.

As it happened, it was the XVth Indian Corps in the Arakan, commanded by General Sir Phillip Christison, which first put into telling effect this technique of self-supporting defended areas maintained in emergency by air supply. In the Spring of 1944, the XVth Corps was thrusting southwards in the Arakan with its immediate objective the general line Maungdaw-Tunnels-Buthidaung. The Japanese were holding on firmly in the Rezabil fortress and the Tunnels and, pivoting on these very strong positions, they launched a traditional counter offensive (see sketch map), hooking in from the east against the flank and rear of the 7th Indian Division. Their plan was to capture Taung Bazaar, seize the Ngakyedauk Pass, which ran through the spine of the Arakan Peninsula, and by which the 7th Indian Division was supplied from the corps base, drive across the high ground to the coast, and cut the road communications of the forward divisions. In fact, the Japanese columns moving in from the east ran up against the 7th Division administrative box at Sinzweya on the eastern side of the Ngakyedauk Pass.

The troops in this defended area, personally commanded by General Messervy, G.O.C. 7th Indian Division, put up an extremely stout resistance and all efforts by the Japanese to overrun the area were successfully resisted. In the meantime, the situation having become apparent, the Corps Commander ordered all troops to

stand fast in their defended areas, cleared his road communications of all traffic, and began to maintain the corps, including the 7th Division administrative box at Sinzweya, by air supply entirely.



Two reserve divisions, the 36th and 26th, were hurriedly moved forward from rest areas behind Chittagong with instructions to destroy the Japanese forces which had infiltrated. For the first time since the war started the Japanese found themselves 'up a gum tree.' They had assumed that, as soon as the British communications were threatened, there would be the usual hurried withdrawal, with the abandonment of dumps and supplies on which they would maintain themselves during the pursuit of their enemies. Instead, they found themselves surging about the unoccupied zones between and behind the British defended areas, unable to supply their own forward troops and with no administrative plan to remedy the situation.

Desperately, they continued their all-out assaults against the 7th Division administrative box at Sinzweya, but gained nothing except a bloody nose. Meanwhile, the inexorable advance of the 36th and 26th Divisions began to exercise a heavy and unbearable pressure. True to their methods, the unco-ordinated Japanese

units fought in their dug-in positions to the last man and last round, but, starving, short of ammunition, and unsupported, they eventually broke, and the remnants of their counter-offensive troops withdrew behind their original front line.

This battle definitely broke the Jap in the Arakan. He was never again an offensive force and within a year he was to be hurled out of the Arakan and out of Akyab, which had been his base in this theatre since 1942.

The great Japanese offensive against the IVth Corps of the 14th Army in the Summer of 1944 followed immediately on the Arakan battle. In fact, it was the second phase of the Japanese plan to invade India.

Relying entirely on those principles of war which had given him such success during the period in which he had possessed the initiative, e.g., the principles of offensive action and surprise, allied to the high morale of his troops, the Jap again neglected almost completely the principles of balanced administration and security. He aimed to capture the IVth Corps base at Imphal and to maintain the impetus of his offensive by means of the dumps and stores captured from the British.

His tactical plan was almost identical with that of his Arakan offensive. It comprised the same right hooks intended to sever road communications between Imphal and railhead at Dimapur, together with massive infiltrations between the IVth Corps defended areas.

Having pulled back the 17th Division, which was dangerously isolated in advance of the Corps right flank, General Slim settled down to fight a dogged defensive battle based on the various divisional area defence dispositions, meanwhile bringing forward both supplies and reinforcements by air. As the battle progressed and the monsoon approached, the Japanese found themselves in a progressively deteriorating situation. In the absence of a proper plan for the administration of their army, failure to break the British resistance and capture the Imphal base could mean only complete disaster to the Japanese.

But the combination of proper area defence and air supply, together with the carefully planned hammer blows of the massive reserves gradually becoming available, decided the issue, and it was a starving and disease-ridden remnant of the Imperial Japanese Army that eventually made its way back over the Chindwin River after the monsoon broke.

Area defence in jungle warfare, as in the open theatres of the Middle East, had proved the effective answer. But it could not have succeeded without local command of the air which made air supply a possible alternative to land communications. Maybe the greatest contribution to final victory in Burma made by Wingate's Chindit expeditions was the lesson demonstrating that air supply can replace road and rail communications during prolonged periods of emergency.

There are surely pointers to the future in these campaigns and in the lessons learned with so much blood and sweat and tribulation during the period 1941-45.

With the atomic and hydrogen bomb threat, a much greater degree of dispersion, both of the fighting troops and of their base areas, becomes essential. This means more vulnerable communications, easily cut by infiltration or even by airborne troops.

The stability of any defence system based on a series of intersupporting areas and the availability of powerful counter-offensive forces must hinge on air supply. This, in its turn, is dependent on the availability of large numbers of the right type of aircraft and their ability to operate. They can only do so if local command of the air, at least, is assured.

THE LOSS OF H.M.S. MEGÆRA IN 1871

By COMMANDER W. B. ROWBOTHAM, R.N.

THIS short article comprises a brief examination of the causes which led to the loss of H.M.S. *Megæra* at St. Paul Island, South Indian Ocean, in 1871, and also describes what happened to her officers and men after she was beached. Although the ship eventually broke up and became a total loss, fortunately no lives were lost. It is a sorry tale of inefficient Admiralty administration in the days when iron ships had begun to replace those built of wood, and when the knowledge possessed by many people, both dockyard officials and sea officers, of the proper means to preserve the hulls of iron ships was little more than rudimentary. In that experimental period there was still much to learn about what to do and, even more important, what not to do. The only redeeming feature in this regrettable affair is the complete exoneration of the *Megæra's* officers and ship's company.

As a matter of passing interest, it may be mentioned that there were two previous ships of this name. The first was a fireship (1782-1817), and the second was a small paddle steamer (1836-1843). The *Megæra* of this story was one of the earliest of H.M. vessels to be built of iron. She was laid down in 1845 and launched in 1849 at the works of Messrs. Fairbairn & Co., Millwall, as a screw steam frigate, 2nd class, of 1,394 tons (old measurement); she carried six guns and her engines developed 350 h.p. In 1851, her armament was removed and she was converted into a troopship, in which capacity she was employed until early in 1864. As a troopship, however, the *Megæra* was uneconomical. She was slow, under steam as well as sail, and her troop-carrying capacity—she could not convey more than half a regiment (500 men)—was small in proportion to her crew.¹ For short passages of not more than two or three days, however, more could be carried, and during the operations in the Black Sea in 1854-55, she is stated to have embarked a regiment (900 strong) besides her crew, and she also towed two ships.

In 1864, she was paid off into the Third Division of the Steam Reserve, and the question was then raised as to her future employment. Her hull was considered to be still strong and, until she could be replaced by a vessel of a better description, it was recommended to utilize her on troop services to be performed coastwise in home waters during the Summer months, and in conveying detachments, military and naval invalids, supernumeraries, and small quantities of stores between England and the Mediterranean. It was finally decided, however, to fit her as a storeship, with accommodation for about 200 naval supernumeraries and about 500 tons of naval stores. On completion of her defects at Devonport she was to be prepared for the First Division of Reserve.

On 10th January, 1865, the *Megæra* was ordered to be commissioned with a complement of 165 men, but ten days later it was directed that she was to be a storeship only, and not a troop and storeship. For the next five and a half years she continued as a storeship, going on one occasion as far as the Falkland Islands, and in August, 1870, she was again paid off into the Reserve. During that period her repairs had been done at Woolwich Dockyard up till January, 1869; and after that date, until her departure for Australia in February, 1871, at Sheerness Dockyard.

Meanwhile, in July, 1866, Woolwich Dockyard had reported that the hull plating of the *Megæra* was suspected to be thin in places. Drill tests, chiefly in the neighbour-

¹ Report of the Director of Transports, Admiral Sir William Mends, 22nd February, 1864.

hood of the water line, showed that the bottom was in good condition, the thinnest places being $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch thick [the bottom plating was originally $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch amidships and $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch forward and aft], but that the plates between wind and water nearly all round the vessel were very thin.² Space does not permit, however, following all the ramifications consequent on this and other reports, but it may be mentioned that in December, 1867, when the thinness of the *Megæra*'s plating came under discussion, the 1866 report, which Vice-Admiral Sir Spencer Robinson, the Controller, had dim recollections of having seen, could not be found in the Admiralty, although it appears to have been there all the time.

We must now turn for a moment to see how a major alteration in the Admiralty organization came about. A Liberal Government had taken office in December, 1868, when the Rt. Hon. H. C. E. Childers became First Lord of the Admiralty. The arrangement of Admiralty business had remained more or less unaltered since 1832, when the Navy Board was abolished, but the system then in force had been found to be unworkable in practice. Mr. Childers therefore decided to effect a complete re-organization, and the proposed reconstitution of the Board of Admiralty was approved by Order in Council of 14th January, 1869. He realized that some of the minor details might require modifying in the light of further experience, and it was his intention to review them after a year's try-out.³ It was shortly after this interim period that the decision was taken to send the *Megæra* on what proved to be her last voyage.

In 1869, there were several inefficient and useless vessels still in existence, many of which were merely lying idle, and a start had been made to place them on the sale list. Although the *Megæra* was described by Admiral Sir Sydney Dacres, the First (or Senior) Naval Lord,⁴ as a most expensive vessel to maintain and he had proposed to pay her off, her name did not appear in the monthly list of redundant ships, and an estimate of £231 for making good her defects was approved early in August, 1870. For the time being, however, she was ordered to be placed in the Fourth Division of Reserve; but after an exchange of telegrams with Sheerness Dockyard it was directed that she should be "kept ready for one year's service and nothing was to be disturbed, returning her perishable stores only." There she remained for the rest of the year.

The number of storeships available in the Summer of 1870 was none too great, and it must be remembered that at that time affairs on the Continent were unpredictable—the Franco-Prussian War had just broken out. The possible necessity for moving troops and stores by sea at short notice could not therefore be disregarded.

In January, 1871, relief crews were required for two ships on the Australian station and it was proposed that the *Megæra* should take them. The Controller objected to her employment, not on the ground of her unseaworthiness but on account of her unsuitability—she had an unenviable reputation as an uncomfortable ship for passengers. His objection, however, was overruled by the Senior Naval Lord, with whom the final decision rested.

² Report of Woolwich Dockyard, 30th July, 1866.

³ An account of this change will be found in the *Mariner's Mirror*, Vol. xxiv, No. 4, 1938. *The Admiralty: Naval Administration from 1832 Onwards*, by Sir Oswyn Murray.

⁴ This title was officially altered in 1904 to First Sea Lord, though the naval members of the Board of Admiralty were often referred to as Sea Lords, as opposed to Naval Lords, some years previous to that date.

The *Megara* was accordingly commissioned at Sheerness on 31st January, 1871, and she sailed on 22nd February, her total complement being 341 officers and men, most of whom were the relief crews for H.M.S. *Blanche* and *Rosario* on the Australian station. The paid-off crews of those ships were then to bring the *Megara* home. Calls were made at Devonport and at Queenstown in order to make good defects and to reduce the amount of stores put on board, and the ship finally cleared from the United Kingdom on 14th March. For the passage out she was commanded by Captain Arthur Thomas Thrupp, who had been appointed to re-commission the *Blanche*. The *Megara*, it may be noted, was the first iron ship in which he served.

The *Megara* herself never reached Australia, as she had to be beached at St. Paul Island ($38^{\circ} 43' \text{ S.}, 77^{\circ} 32.5' \text{ E.}$) on 19th June. There the castaways remained until 5th September—a total of 79 days—when they were taken off by the P. & O. s.s. *Malacca*, which had been chartered at Hong Kong for the purpose.

The voyage of the *Megara* can now be briefly related. After calling at Madeira, St. Vincent (Cape Verde Is.), and Ascension, she arrived at Simonstown on 18th May and, after making good some slight defects, left for Sydney on 28th May. Up till then no untoward events had occurred.

The month of June (mid-Winter) is not the best time of year for traversing the South Indian Ocean, and very bad weather was encountered. The first indication of troubles to come arose 11 days after leaving Simonstown, when in $39^{\circ} 40' \text{ S.}, 44^{\circ} 22' \text{ E.}$ (about 1,200 miles from the Cape of Good Hope). At midnight on 8th/9th June, the chief engineer reported that the ship was making considerably more water than was normal. The hand pumps were manned and at first the leak was kept under, but on the 12th it gained. Next day it was reported that the cause of the trouble was due to the loss of a rivet in the ship's bottom under the port bunker, nearly abreast the mainmast. (The position of the leak was afterwards found to be correct, though the hole was in fact much larger than the diameter of a rivet hole.) On the 14th a plate, lined with indiarubber, was put on from the inside, but it had no effect; the bottom was so badly eaten away by rust that the only result was to enlarge the hole. That evening a start was made to convert the poop awning, thrummed double, into a collision mat.

Up till then the ship had been under sail only, but in the morning watch on the 15th steam was raised and the screw lowered, chiefly to enable the bilge pumps to be used, as the water was gaining considerably. A return to Simonstown would have entailed a dead beat to windward, so course was shaped for the nearest land, St. Paul Island, where a diver (there were two on board) could be sent down to examine the ship's bottom from the outside. Diving apparatus was then normally supplied to flagships only, but a set had fortunately been obtained before leaving England.

On the night of the 16th, the *Megara* was about 20 miles from the island and she was rounded to on the starboard tack until daylight. "It was blowing a heavy gale [force 9-10], the ship being under fore staysail, gaff foresail, and storm main trysail, though the heads of the two latter sails were not hauled out, and using steam to keep her free of water. The ship behaved beautifully, riding quite easily, notwithstanding the very heavy sea running."

At daylight next morning, land was sighted about nine miles off, nearly astern; the *Megara* was run in under steam, and at 9.5 a.m. came to with the small bower in 14 fathoms. It was still blowing hard, and at 11.40 she began to drag; on weighing, the crown and both flukes were found to have gone. The best bower was then let

go and the diver was sent down to examine the ship's bottom. He located the leak during the course of the afternoon, and the engineers, who had made an internal examination, then reported that it was unsafe to proceed without a thorough examination of the bottom, which in the circumstances was impossible. Captain Thrupp, however, was still hopeful of being able to go on when the leak was stopped.

On the 18th, the ship again began to drag, and on weighing the cable was found to have parted close to the anchor. The port sheet anchor was then let go. Meanwhile, the diver had continued his examination and the engineers had made a further internal search, which confirmed their previous report, "so at 9.15 a.m. I [Captain Thrupp] turned the hands up, read prayers, and informed the ship's company that the ship was not fit to proceed on her voyage, and ordered provisions and stores to be at once landed." About noon the diver succeeded in putting on a plate, which nearly stopped the leak—but it was not for long. That afternoon the ship was shifted closer inshore.

Intermittent heavy squalls continued on the 19th. Steaming to the anchor was of little avail and she still dragged. On weighing again one fluke was found to be broken off. That afternoon Captain Thrupp decided to beach the ship, as he had only one anchor left and there was no possibility of the remaining one holding. At 1.52 p.m., the *Megæra* was beached on the bar which forms the east edge of the crater⁵; the last anchor was let go to prevent her from slipping off shore, and she was steamed at full speed ahead until the water rose and extinguished the fires. The ship then settled down and remained perfectly stationary and upright. The reason for the loss of the anchors was the volcanic, rocky nature of the bottom; the arming on the lead showed black sand, but this was only about two feet in depth.

Captain Thrupp's reports of proceedings after the *Megæra* was beached provide many details of how everyone was employed, but the whole story, interesting though it is, is too long to give here. There was plenty to do, much of which was entirely different from the normal life on board ship, and the novelty of their surroundings no doubt helped to keep the ship's company interested during their stay on the island. All hands, officers and men, buckled to with a will to clear the ship of coal, provisions, and stores. One of the first considerations was the adequate provision of drinking water. It was then the rainy season and the pools at the summit of the island, about 860 feet up, contained enough rain water for immediate requirements. At first, all this had to be carried down in barricoes to the camp below—a most laborious method; but within the next few days a hose was rigged from the pools to the camp, which satisfactorily got over that difficulty. Arrangements were also made for condensing, for which three water tanks were hoisted out and landed. With coal, 300 gallons of distilled water could be made daily, and with dried turf as fuel, half that quantity. It was realized that the ability of a chance passing vessel to take off some of the people was limited by the small reserve of fresh water usually carried. A store of condensed water and rain water from the hill was therefore casked up and held in readiness if required.

Although most of the provisions were saved, the duration of their stay on the island was unknown, so everyone was put on a reduced allowance. This, however, was supplemented by the fish caught, of which there was generally no lack, and also by the numerous wild goats; mushrooms were plentiful and there were a few cabbages and potatoes to be obtained.

The sails were used to make tents, and by the 24th nearly everyone was on shore under cover and protected from the weather; a few officers and men still lived on

⁵ See Admiralty chart, No. 1921.

board, but the smell of the bilges became gradually worse, so on 29th June the ship was abandoned entirely and all hands were encamped on shore.

With one solitary exception the behaviour of the ship's company while they were on shore was exemplary. The only case of insubordination, which occurred five days after the ship was beached, was immediately quelled. "Punished Jethro Spear, ord. 2 cl. (2 cl. for conduct), with 48 lashes for refusing to work."

All this time the weather was very cold, the temperature being less than 42°, with snow lying on the ground on the hill top, but thanks to the care taken by the two surgeons, the sick list remained small—on 9th July, for instance, the number unfit for duty was eight.

A look-out station was made on the hill top, where a mast (actually a studding sail boom) was erected and a gun was got up. Here the ensign was hoisted union down, but although one or two vessels had hove in sight, they passed the island at too great a distance for a boat to communicate with them and it was not until 16th July that a ship closed the island. The reason for her doing so was not so much that the signal of distress had been seen, but because it was mistaken for a tree on the hill top; the master explained that his curiosity had been aroused, as when he last passed within sight of the island there was no tree there.

This vessel proved to be the *Aurora* (Captain Vessei, master), a Dutch ship from Amsterdam to Batavia. Acting-Lieutenant L. T. Jones, who had been detailed to hold himself in readiness at a moment's notice to board any vessel approaching the island, went out to communicate with her, taking with him a few Admiralty returns and remittance lists; the despatches (reports of proceedings) were not taken on this occasion, as Captain Thrupp happened to be at the other side of the island at the critical time. The boat returned, leaving Jones to take passage to Batavia (he actually landed at Sourabaya), where he was to get in touch with Singapore and to telegraph to the Admiralty the state of affairs. Captain Vessei had said that he could take twenty men and would close again next day, but a recurrence of bad weather prevented him from doing so.

The true comradeship of the sea was well exemplified by the behaviour of Captain Vessei, for whose kindness and attention Lieutenant Jones had nothing but praise. Not only did he refuse to accept any passage money, but he expressed his regret at being able to render so little assistance. Their Lordships, to mark their sense of Captain Vessei's kindness and generosity, in addition to forwarding their thanks for his services on the occasion, also presented him with a gold chronometer, valued at £50.

The news of the disaster was received at the Admiralty in the afternoon of 3rd August. This had been telegraphed by Mr. Fraser, the British Consular Agent at Batavia, and less than two hours later another telegram was received from the Commodore, Hong Kong, stating that he had chartered a steamer to take the shipwrecked crew to Sydney. Meanwhile, the Admiralty had telegraphed to Aden and Bombay to inquire what ships were immediately available to proceed to St. Paul Island; these "out" messages, however, were subsequently cancelled as soon as it was known what ship was being sent from Hong Kong. The ship chartered was the P. & O. s.s. *Malacca* (Captain J. Bernard, master), which sailed on 7th August and was expected to arrive at St. Paul Island about the 29th.

On the 6th, the Admiralty telegraphed their approval of the steps taken at Hong Kong; and on the 8th information was received that the *Oberon* (Captain

Burgoynes, master), belonging to Messrs. Shaw, Maxton & Co., had been chartered at Batavia, in compliance with Admiralty instructions sent on the 3rd, to take Lieutenant Jones back to St. Paul Island with a good supply of provisions. The *Oberon*, which was carrying a cargo of tea valued at £200,000, sailed on 9th August and reached the island on the 26th, bringing the welcome news that the *Malacca* was on her way to take everyone off. The *Megara's* people were then enabled, in the words of the old muster books, to be once more victualled at full allowance of all species.

Before this, however, an opportunity had arisen on 5th August to send away despatches for the Admiralty. These, with mail bags for Australia and England, were put on board a Dutch barque—her name is not mentioned—which was bound for Padang, Sumatra. Mr. H. Roxby, navigating sub-lieutenant, went in charge of the despatches, and with him were two other officers (one of whom was sick) and two seamen belonging to the *Basilisk*. Some water was sent out in the cutter to the Dutch vessel, and the first lieutenant (Lieutenant E. S. Evans), thinking that she would take some of the supernumerary boys, had put nine boys' bags in the boat; but before it could get alongside the wind and sea increased considerably. The cutter's crew only just managed to get on board the vessel, which took the boat in tow and made sail to beat up near the shore late in the afternoon. The lifeboat, which was also sent out, had great difficulty in getting alongside, and then it was only for a minute; her gunwale was torn off, the port air box was half filled, and she was swamped. The cutter's crew made a jump for her, but the midshipman of the boat, Mr. F. F. Henderson, failed to make it and was carried off with only the clothes he stood up in.

The barque shortly afterwards made sail for Padang, having the cutter in tow with the boys' bags still in it. The gale increased during the night, and that was the last seen of either cutter or bags. The damaged lifeboat managed to get back into the crater, but it was touch and go, and Captain Thrupp recorded that he did not think she would have remained afloat for another ten minutes. The Dutch vessel had intended to supply some provisions, but the sea ran so high that she only succeeded in passing eight casks of flour into the lifeboat. That, however, was better than nothing, and it enabled a full allowance of flour to be issued twice a week while it lasted.

Three days later another vessel appeared. This was the British *Mountain Laurel*, bound for Batavia with 800 tons of coal, and a part of the triplicate despatches was put on board her. The master offered to take the *Megara's* crew on to Australia for £3,000, but to do so he wanted the whole of his cargo purchased at £4 10s. a ton and then to jettison 200 tons in order to make room for the men. But having already sent away officers and despatches, and taking into consideration that a relief ship, probably a steamer, would already be on the way, Captain Thrupp did not accept this exorbitant bargain and the vessel proceeded on her voyage the same evening.

The *Malacca* arrived at St. Paul Island at 7 a.m. on 30th August, but at 8.20 her cable parted and she put to sea again. She returned on 1st September, when a start was made to embark the *Megara's* crew and their baggage. It was a fine, smooth day, and by dusk 264 people had been taken on board. The wind increased during the night, and next morning Captain Thrupp sent off a message to Captain Bernard, recommending him to weigh and put to sea until the wind abated; but at 9.30 a.m. his second cable parted and he then proceeded to get clear of the land. During the whole of that day and most of the next the *Malacca* received a severe

buffeting; all except one of her boats were stove in or washed away, and many tons of water found its way below. The island was closed again in the afternoon of the 3rd, but there was too much sea on the bar for boat work. Early on the 4th, a boat was sent in, but nothing more could be done until the 5th, by which time wind and sea had gone down. The rest of the officers and men were then embarked, though this took some time as Captain Bernard had only one anchor left and he preferred to remain under way. The wind had been getting up from the north, which necessitated the boats having to be received down to leeward; after being cleared they had to be towed up to windward to enable them to fetch into the crater for the next load. Everyone was taken off by 3 p.m., and as there was every prospect of it being a dirty night, the pinnace was cut adrift. Finally, at 4.15 p.m., Captain Thrupp and the first lieutenant came off in the *Megæra's* lifeboat, which was hoisted at the starboard waist davits. The *Malacca* then shaped course for King George's Sound, Albany, where she arrived on 14th September. For his services on this occasion Captain Bernard received the thanks of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty.

H.M.S. *Rinaldo* (Commander F. C. B. Robinson) had also been ordered to proceed to St. Paul Island to bring Captain Thrupp and the witnesses for the court-martial to Singapore, whence they were to return to England by ordinary steamer. The *Rinaldo* left Batavia on 10th August and arrived at the island at 9 p.m. on the 29th; next day, however, she parted both cables in quick succession in the heavy squalls and was blown out to sea. She returned on 2nd September, but the weather was no better—it was still blowing force 10-11 in the squalls. Captain Thrupp therefore made a signal to her to "put to sea at once; get an offing." Commander Robinson replied, "Am in want of coals; should it come on to blow again, may not be able to get back. Rendezvous King George's Sound." The *Malacca* also made a signal to the *Rinaldo*—"Keep company."

The *Rinaldo* closed the anchorage again in the afternoon of the 5th, when the *Malacca* was observed to be embarking the last of the *Megæra's* people; but in answer to her signal, asking Captain Thrupp to come on board without delay, the reply was that he was unable to do so. At 5.20 p.m., the *Rinaldo* trimmed and shaped course E.S.E., her final instructions from Captain Thrupp, who was then on board the *Malacca*, being to proceed independently. She arrived at King George's Sound at 7.10 p.m. on 16th September, two days after the *Malacca*, but with her further movements we are not now concerned.

This last gale was of exceptional severity, and early in the morning of the 3rd heavy rollers set in. The *Megæra*, without any previous warning, suddenly broke in two amidships, the fore part being lifted over the bar to disappear into the deep water of the crater of the volcano which forms the island. The after part remained where it was.* "The sea rose 20 feet farther inshore than usual, destroying the esplanade, lifting and displacing the pier, flooding the lower tents and houses, and sending the boats adrift; at nine in the morning 2,000 tons of rocks fell from the left-hand cliff of the crater and soon afterwards 700 tons more, showing the island was unusually disturbed." In the circumstances, the stores had to be left behind and were placed in charge of two Frenchmen who lived on the island.

In November, 1871, a court-martial was assembled at Portsmouth "to inquire into the loss of H.M.S. *Megæra*, and to try these officers under the Naval Discipline

* A picture showing the remains of the *Megæra* can be seen framed in the Admiralty Library.

Act." The proceedings lasted from the 9th to the 17th inclusive, and the finding of the Court was as follows:—

"The Court is of opinion that although it did not appear that the leak, which was the cause of the said ship touching at St. Paul Island, did at any time overpower the pumps, yet the state of the bottom in the neighbourhood of the leak was such that, taking all the circumstances of the case into consideration, the position of the ship, 1,800 miles from any available port, the fact that the ship had parted from three anchors, and that it was evident she could not maintain her position at St. Paul's anchorage at that season of the year; taking also into consideration the small quantity of coal remaining on board of her, and the number of lives at stake, the said Captain Arthur Thomas Thrupp was fully justified in beaching the ship, and that he would not have been justified in continuing his course to Australia, and did therefore acquit him of all blame in respect to it. The Court is further of opinion that no blame whatever is attributable to the other officers and men under trial for the stranding and loss of H.M.S. *Megæra*, and doth therefore acquit them of all blame, and the said Captain and other officers and men are hereby acquitted accordingly."

The proceedings terminated with the President's final words—"I have much pleasure, Captain Thrupp, in returning to you your sword."

Five days later a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the circumstances of the loss of the *Megæra*, but the terms of reference did not extend to reviewing what happened after she was beached. That had been investigated at the court-martial. The members of the Commission were appointed on 22nd November, 1871. They were:—

The Rt. Hon. John Laird Mair, Baron Lawrence, G.C.B., K.C.S.I. [late Viceroy of India] (Chairman);

The Rt. Hon. Abraham Brewster [late Lord Chancellor of Ireland];

Admiral Sir Michael Seymour, G.C.B.;

Sir Frederick Arrow, Kt. (Deputy Master of the Corporation of Trinity House);

Henry Cadogan Rothery, Esq. (Registrar of the High Court of Admiralty in England);

Thomas Chapman, Esq., F.R.S. (Chairman of Committee for Lloyds Registry of British and Foreign Shipping and Vice-President of the Institution of Naval Architects); and

George Parker Bidder, Barrister-at-Law (Secretary).

The Commission sat on 24 separate days. Their report, which was signed on 6th March, 1872, is most comprehensive. The finding occupies 31 pages of print (including a minority report by Mr. Rothery), the minutes of the evidence another 538 pages, and appendices a further 228 pages. Together with the index, the whole runs to 805 pages. Eighty-four witnesses were examined, the total number of questions asked being 16,928.⁷

Several of the witnesses were deemed to be deserving of censure in greater or less degree. Space does not permit following their sins of omission in detail, but the Commissioners were of the opinion that the main responsibility for the loss of the *Megæra* rested on Vice-Admiral Sir Spencer Robinson, the Controller. They also stated:—

"108. We feel compelled to add that we have formed, however unwillingly,

⁷ Reports from Commissioners: 1872. *Megæra* Commission. (C.507.) (The price at which the whole report could be purchased from H.M. Stationery Office was 8s. 4d.)

an unfavourable opinion as to the mode in which the administration of Her Majesty's Dockyards is generally conducted. The important work of the survey of vessels seems often to have been done in an incomplete and unsatisfactory manner. Officers too often appear to us to have done no more than each of them thought it was absolutely necessary to do; following a blind routine in the discharge of their duties, and acting almost as if it were their main object to avoid responsibility.

"110. We feel bound also to state that, in the course of the inquiry, it has been clearly shown to us that the system of administration at the Admiralty is defective in some important points. Its secretariat arrangements are insufficient, and its mode of registration of correspondence defective. . . .

"112. We have come to the above conclusions after careful and full consideration. It is with reluctance and pain that we express unfavourable opinions with respect to the conduct of officers, and the management of a great department. But, in doing so, we have acted on a strong sense of duty, and of the imperative obligations which have been placed on us by Your Majesty."

With some of the conclusions of his colleagues, however, Mr. Rothery did not entirely concur. He stated, in a minority report of some length, that:

"It appears to me that the report errs in throwing the chief responsibility for the loss of this vessel upon the Controller and his department, and thus unduly sheltering the dockyard officials, and especially the Sheerness officers, with whom in my opinion the blame of this misfortune principally rests."

The relevant paragraphs of the report by the Royal Commission were sent to the officers, dockyard officials, and the Admiralty clerk upon whom censure had been passed, in order to give them an opportunity to explain their conduct. Their replies were very lengthy, but for the most part they may be shortly paraphrased by that ancient Maltese excuse—"Not me, Sare; my brother in Gozo."

The salient points of the evidence at the court-martial were reported day by day in *The Times*, which had a strongly worded leading article on the result of the proceedings, ending with:—

"But the broad results are already established before the court-martial. They do honour to the gallantry of our seamen, but they convict the Admiralty of a parsimonious recklessness and of a cruel incompetence which deserves the most severe reprobation."⁸

The finding of the Royal Commission was also reported, several extracts being quoted *in extenso*. The leading article on this report was not less outspoken, and the concluding sentence stated:—

"The reasons for and against are sufficiently given in the report, but, however the responsibility may be apportioned, the public will be glad to find that the cause of the *Megara's* loss has been sufficiently ascertained, and every excuse removed for the recurrence of such a disaster."⁸

The circumstances of the loss of this ship, and of the findings of the court-martial and of the Royal Commission, are also related in the *Annual Register*, 1871 and 1872.

⁸ *The Times*: 18th November, 1871 and 8th March, 1872, respectively.

Punch, which at that time often gave space to serious matters, had in its issue of 25th November, 1871, a set of apt verses referring to this incident under the heading, "A Dive to Discovery."⁹

Two more accounts may be mentioned. In *The Fighting Forces*, Vol. 8, April, 1931, there is a short account by Lieutenant-Commander George Wilson, who was a sub-lieutenant in the *Megara* at the time—he subsequently joined the *Rosario*.

His interesting story is chiefly concerned with what happened after the ship was beached; two of his dates are not quite correct (one is an obvious misprint), but when he wrote his account for publication he must have been over 80 years of age. Captain Thrupp's journal covering the time he was in the *Megara* and while he was on St. Paul Island was privately printed with a limited circulation, but as far as can be ascertained no copy seems to have survived.

The *Blanche* and *Rosario* did not recommission until 10th October, 1871. The *Malacca*, which had been engaged on a time charter, was retained to take the old crews as far as Bombay, whence they returned to England in the Indian troopships *Malabar* and *Crocodile*.

Captain Thrupp never took up his appointment to the *Blanche*. In those days a captain often had to wait for four or five years after being promoted before getting a ship, and having thus missed the *Blanche* he had to wait until 22nd February, 1872, before being appointed to the *Valorous* paddle frigate. He held one other seagoing command, the *Topaze* screw frigate, and subsequently commanded the Coast Guard Reserve ship stationed at Rock Ferry, Cheshire. While holding this appointment, which he vacated on 1st April, 1881, he was at first in the *Resistance* and then in the *Defence*. His other services are not without interest. As a junior officer he saw active service in two wars: as a lieutenant in the *Cruiser* during the Baltic campaigns in 1854 and 1855 (medal), and later as first lieutenant of the *Nimrod* during the Second China War, when he was present at the capture of the Peiho forts on 20th May, 1858 (medal and clasp, Taku Forts 1858). For his services on that occasion he was promoted to commander on 17th September, 1858. He had three separate commands (*Cygnets*, *Desperate*, and *Geyser*) as a commander and obtained his promotion to captain on 16th December, 1865.

His service as a captain has been given above, and in February, 1879, when he was 21 places down the list, he was appointed Aide-de-Camp to H.M. the Queen, which appointment he vacated on his promotion to the rank of rear-admiral on 31st December, 1881. He was not, however, employed in that rank, and he finally retired in July, 1885, being advanced to vice-admiral (retired) on 19th June, 1888. He died on 4th May, 1889, at Elmfield, Bideford, aged 61 years. Golf was one of his recreations, and he was an early member of the Royal North Devon Golf Club, Westward Ho!, which was founded in 1876.

Those deficiencies in Admiralty administration and dockyard practice, which the Royal Commission so roundly condemned, have long since been remedied. In general, however, accidents, which may or may not involve the loss of life, to passenger carriers—whether they be ships (such as the hired troopship *Empire Windrush*), aircraft (such as the Comets), railway trains, or road vehicles—are a possibility that can never be wholly eradicated. The human element, from whatever cause, is still liable to error, but the fact that these disasters continue to occur from time to time

⁹ *Punch*, Vol. LXI, p. 220.

does not necessarily imply that there was failure to observe the necessary precautions before or during passage.

Many ships have been lost at sea: some with all hands (when the cause was often unknown), others with little or no loss of life at all. The officers and men of the *Megæra* were indeed fortunate to have come within the last-named category.

HELICOPTERS FOR THE ARMY

By "FATHER WILLIAM"

"In my youth" said the sage, as he took up his pen,

"I thought it might hurt my career.

But now that I'm old, I'm quite sure I have none,

So I say what I like without fear."

(With apologies to the late Lewis Carroll.)

TWO things may justify a retired officer's intrusion upon the technicalities of modern war. One of these is indicated in the little verse above. It is not easy for an officer on the active list to voice doubts or misgivings concerning army/air co-operation, for he incurs a serious risk of being black-listed as an anachronism, as a saboteur of inter-Service relations, as one who hankers after that long outmoded heresy, an Army Air Arm. Such repression of thoughts is not in the public interest.

However efficient army/air co-operation may be, like all other human institutions it is capable of improvement. Progress will not be made by suppressing misgivings or by pretending that they do not exist. This is where the retired officer may fill a gap. He may be called a fool. That hurts nobody. 'Fools rush in where A.L.O.s fear to tread'.

He must, however, have something new to contribute. In this respect I may venture to claim certain qualifications. I spent a great deal of the first war and the last one in struggling to improve army/air co-operation. I piloted aeroplanes from 1916 to 1946, and, having flown helicopters (*not solo*!), there are certain experiences, which have come my way, which may throw fresh light upon the problem of who is to run the helicopters used in future land warfare.

The helicopter (or some other vertical-lift aircraft) is destined to be *the* vehicle of future land war. This evolution may be very long in coming or it may be with us very soon. All that is certain is that it is bound to happen. Those who doubt need only turn to an advertisement in the November issue of this JOURNAL—an advertisement which is not claiming more than the truth. "What other available vehicle," it asks, "can pick up ten men with full equipment, carry them over 50 miles of country impassable to wheeled traffic, and put them down on a mountain top, etc., etc.?" The answer, of course, is the helicopter, the comparatively crude and primitive helicopter of *today*. It does not require much imagination or military knowledge to foresee some of the uses to which this versatile cross-country vehicle will be put. That is exactly what the helicopter can already claim to be called—a *cross-country vehicle*, much faster and of far higher cross-country performance than a tank, or jeep, or any other contrivance.

Herein lies the great difference between helicopters and aeroplanes. The aeroplane is *not* a cross-country vehicle, never has been, and never will be. Admittedly it can carry soldiers and fighting equipment from point A to point B, provided that point A is an elaborately prepared runway. Unless point B also has a runway, the aeroplane can only decant its soldiers there, either by parachute or glider, and leave them to fend for themselves. It cannot pick them up again and carry them back to A, or to a third point C, if the tactical situation requires this. Still less can the aeroplane land close to the fighting troops and remain camouflaged in readiness to move them about the battle-field. Helicopters of the near future will be able to do all these

things. It seems reasonable to suppose that before long they will supplant and render unnecessary a great deal of wheeled or tracked military transport. Perhaps, one day, airborne forces will move and fight *entirely* without wheeled transport, large numbers of small helicopters acting as their first line transport, and so rendering unnecessary their present establishment of jeeps, trailers, etc.

It is superfluous to devote more time to emphasizing the military possibilities of helicopters, because most progressive soldiers have already realized what is opening before us. It is perhaps sufficient to claim that a time will come before long when the air above the battle zones of armies will be infested with helicopters of all sizes, varying from the one-man portable machine, already in existence, which will carry artillery observers, unit or formation commanders, and so on, up to quite large multi-engined freighters travelling up and down the supply lines and bringing their loads right up to the fighting unit.

The important point to realize is that they will be operating in very large numbers indeed, for they will supplant not only the long columns of lorries, which at present trail behind the fighting troops. They will also supplant the masses of jeeps, scout cars, and other small fry which infest the forward fighting zone.

"But," the sceptic may scoff, "this is fantastic! There would be an absolute massacre of helicopters!" On the contrary there is good reason to believe that casualties would be less among this enormous movement of helicopters than among the corresponding volume of ground transport which they will supplant.

During the 1914-18 War, I had occasion to take evasive action against five enemy fighters, who had caught me on a lone job and killed my observer. I evaded them by descending to within a few feet of the ground and circling round some high trees. The fighters, with their superior speed, were seriously cramped and unable to do me much harm. In those days the speeds of fighters were absurdly slow by modern standards.

In the last war, the slow unarmed Austers, flown by R.A. officers as 'air O.P.s,' used this same trick when attacked by fighters. In actual fact they were rarely attacked, even when enemy fighters were plentiful and active, because the modern high-speed fighter could seldom find them, provided that they operated at very low altitudes. Hostile radar was rarely able to pick them up, owing to interference by trees and other excrescences, and the fighter pilot, flying at great speed some distance above them, practically never saw these little low-flying aeroplanes.

These evasive advantages of the slow, low flyer over the enemy fighter will be magnified immensely in the case of helicopters. Flying, as they will, just above tree-top altitude, these masses of helicopters will enjoy both the advantages which I have just mentioned—namely the improbability of being found by enemy radar and the ability to render themselves an unpleasant target for jet fighters by popping down among trees or buildings when attacked.

Columns of lorries moving along a road present a very much easier target to fighter attack. The area of search is restricted to a known road. The fighters know where to look; they are often guided to the target by the dust raised by their victims. Masses of helicopters, moving across country at very low altitudes and able to 'go to ground' whenever threatened, will be a very much less vulnerable target than lorry columns, given the same degree of enemy fighter activity in each case.

The importance of this fact becomes considerable when we turn to discuss the question, 'Which Service ought to run the Army's helicopters?' On the face of it,

one might say that this new cross-country vehicle, which is going to replace the Army's jeeps and lorries, ought naturally to be army transport. But the other school of thought will object on the ground of vulnerability to air attack. It will be claimed that helicopter movement will be completely dependent upon the air situation. Until a certain degree of air superiority has been gained, so it will be said, helicopters will have to keep out of the air. They must therefore operate strictly under the Air Command, so as to synchronize their movements with fighter sweeps and so on.

There is no validity in this argument. With equal logic one might put all the lorry transport of the Army under the R.A.F., for it is far more vulnerable to fighter attack than the low-flying, tree-dodging helicopters of the future will be. There will, of course, be helicopter casualties—perhaps at times very heavy casualties—but this will be an ordinary risk of war, rather lighter than the risk already accepted as normal in the case of lorry columns. There will be only one commander who will be in a position to assess this risk and decide whether it is justified—the *military* commander, for whom all these helicopters will be moving, and *not* the air commander, who will not be qualified to judge the importance of the work which the helicopters are doing for the land battle at any given moment.

Whether the world becomes involved in a global nuclear war or not, minor campaigns against guerrillas, as in Kenya and Malaya, are likely tasks for the British Army for some years to come. Though orthodox air power has lost a great deal of its effectiveness against such enemies, as explained in an article in the November issue of the JOURNAL¹, helicopters, used as transport for military forces, have already proved their value.

Till now, guerrillas seem to prefer concealment to anti-helicopter fire, but this may change. Helicopters of present design would be rather too vulnerable to rifle or machine-gun fire to justify their 'closing' with a guerrilla lair and shooting their way into it. But it cannot be beyond our designers' capabilities to produce a lightly armoured helicopter, amply protected against ordinary S.A.A., which could also carry a Bren gun and a few riflemen. A dozen or so of these 'flying Bren-carriers' could make a sudden appearance over a guerrilla lair, then shoot their way into it, so as to decant their riflemen, who would 'winkle out' the enemy under cover of the Bren fire from a few feet above. A small force of this kind would be worth more in guerrilla hunting than many times their strength in orthodox ground-moving troops. But to make such a force an efficient fighting team, helicopters, Brens, and riflemen *must* all belong to one integrated unit.

There need be no fluttering among Air Ministry doves over these ideas. This is no 'thin end of the wedge,' no plot to start an Army Air Arm again, no sinister propaganda against the sacred principle of undivided air power. Let us all agree that *fighters* and *bombers*, the instruments of air power, ought not to be split into penny packets. Let us agree that air power must remain under one central control and organization.

But helicopters are not air power. All the helicopters in creation will not add one iota to the strength of Bomber or Fighter Command by being centralized under the R.A.F. This new vehicle should be treated exactly like any other mere vehicle. It should be owned and maintained by the Service which uses it.

There is nothing inherently outrageous in the idea of the Army owning vehicles that travel through the air. The R.A.F. owns lorries which travel along roads in

¹ *The Use of Air Power in Security Operations*, by Wing Commander C. N. Foxley-Norris, D.S.O., R.A.F.

the Army's theatre of traffic control. The R.A.F. also owns air-sea rescue craft that plough the seas without, apparently, any objection from the Royal Navy. These anomalies are merely common-sense solutions of minor practical problems. In the November issue of the JOURNAL² it is reported that the U.S. Army is purchasing a thousand or more helicopters. If the U.S. Air Force can accept this breach of the 'air monopoly' with composure, surely our own Air Staff can be equally reasonable.

It may be said that helicopters, though not themselves a direct contribution to air power, are so indirectly. It may be said that the manufacture of helicopters and the training of their pilots constitutes a drain upon potential air power. If less helicopters are put into service, there will be more raw material available to manufacture into aeroplanes, more fuel to fly the aeroplanes, and more young men available to be turned into jet pilots. This argument is specious and only partially valid.

It is valid to the extent that it applies equally to *all* war potential, whether it is raw material or finished weapons. It is equally true, for example, to claim that if the Royal Navy builds fewer fighting ships there will be more steel for tank armour, and therefore a much more powerful army. It is true to say that if the Army deprived itself of all mechanized vehicles, there would be far more fuel available for the air war. But, until the day arrives when nations can rely upon air power *alone*, and completely abolish navies and armies, some portion of the national war potential will always have to be diverted from air power in order to equip the other Services for war. It makes no difference at all whether the Army uses its share of the total war potential for building jeeps and lorries or for building helicopters.

As to the theory that the helicopter pilots could, if they belonged to the R.A.F., form a reserve pool from which jet pilots could be trained for the air war, this is sheer nonsense. As soon as the controls of helicopters have been simplified (a mere matter of design, as they are unnecessarily complicated at present), it should be no more difficult to fly a helicopter than to drive a fast car or a heavy lorry. Helicopter pilots will be drawn from quite a different section of our young intake to that which provides budding jet pilots. The requirements, as regards quickness of mental reaction and physical fitness, are entirely different. In any case, if the Army has to go to war at all, it seems thoroughly unsound to treat its vehicle drivers as a potential reserve for another Service. We must either do without an Army altogether or else send it to war properly equipped and trained, even down to its transport drivers.

This article may be superfluous. Decision may already have been reached to let the Army have its own vehicles. As an old soldier I am not in the know. But, in case the matter is still *sub judice*, this is simply a plea for plain commonsense. Before long the Police will have their helicopters, so will the Lifeboat Institution, the fire services, and probably the Post Office. It seems unreasonable that the Army alone should have to beg or borrow vehicles from another Service, merely in order to satisfy the tidy minds of those who dislike seeing soldiers flying. We must stop thinking in terms of 1918. We need an army vehicle to do an army job.

² See *Army Notes*, p. 630.

CYPRUS

By LIEUT.-COLONEL J. D. EDGAR, R.E.

CYPRUS has been much in the news of recent months, partly owing to its political troubles and partly due to the recent announcement in the Press that G.H.Q. Middle East Land and Air Forces has moved there from the Canal Zone. Also, with the evacuation of the Canal Zone, with the integration of Greece and Turkey into the N.A.T.O., and with the general redeployment of forces and influences in the eastern Mediterranean, Cyprus is assuming a strategic importance it has never known before. A newspaper article about two years ago described it as about to become "the Aldershot of the Middle East"; this may be a slight journalistic overstatement, but there seems to be little doubt that the number of Service men, especially Army, who will be stationed there during the coming years will greatly exceed any that the island has known in the past. The purpose of this article is to give some idea, necessarily very brief, of the country, its people, and the general background to Service life which may be expected. Conditions are changing rapidly. The author left there in December, 1953, and no guarantee can be given that the picture here presented remains true in all respects, more than 12 months later.

HISTORY

For a true appreciation of Cyprus and its many remains of historical and archaeological interest, it is essential to have some knowledge of the outline of its history. Unfortunately, this history is a complex one, too complex to be detailed in this article; in any case nearly every guide book on Cyprus contains an excellent summary of the main events over the past 2,500 years. Briefly, between 569 B.C. and A.D. 1878, the island belonged in succession to Egypt, Greece, Persia, Macedonia, Rome, Byzantium, England (Richard Coeur-de-Lion), Knights Templar, the Lusignan kings, Venice, and Turkey, the longest period of single rule being that of Byzantium, for nearly 800 years from A.D. 395. It was in Turkish hands from 1573 to 1878, when it was transferred to British administration by a Convention with Turkey in return for a promise of assistance in the event of an attack on that country by Russia. The first High Commissioner was Sir Garnet Wolseley, and the first trigonometrical survey of the island was carried out by one Captain H. H. Kitchener in 1880. Kitchener succeeded in perpetuating his own memory in Cyprus in another way too, by importing a pack of foxhounds; these must have been of exceedingly virile stock as even to this day a high proportion of village mongrels clearly display their foxhound ancestry.

When Turkey declared war on Great Britain in 1914, the Convention was annulled and Cyprus was annexed by Britain. In May, 1925, the altered status was formally recognized by the passing of Letters Patent, giving to Cyprus the status and name of a Crown Colony and changing the office of High Commissioner to that of Governor.

The Governor was originally assisted in his administration by a small advisory Executive Council with ex officio members and a Legislative Council of 15 elected and nine official members. However, in 1931, the long smouldering Enosis campaign broke into open revolt and Government House was burnt to the ground. The elected members of the Legislative Council were supporters of the revolt and the Council was therefore suspended.

After that date, all powers of legislation were vested solely in the Governor, acting on the advice of his Executive Council. A revised constitution was offered in 1948, but was turned down by the population under the blast of intensive Enosis propaganda (union with Greece or nothing). The most recent development took place in July, 1954, when declarations were made by the Governor and the Secretary of State for the Colonies regarding a still further constitution, restoring some measure of representative government.

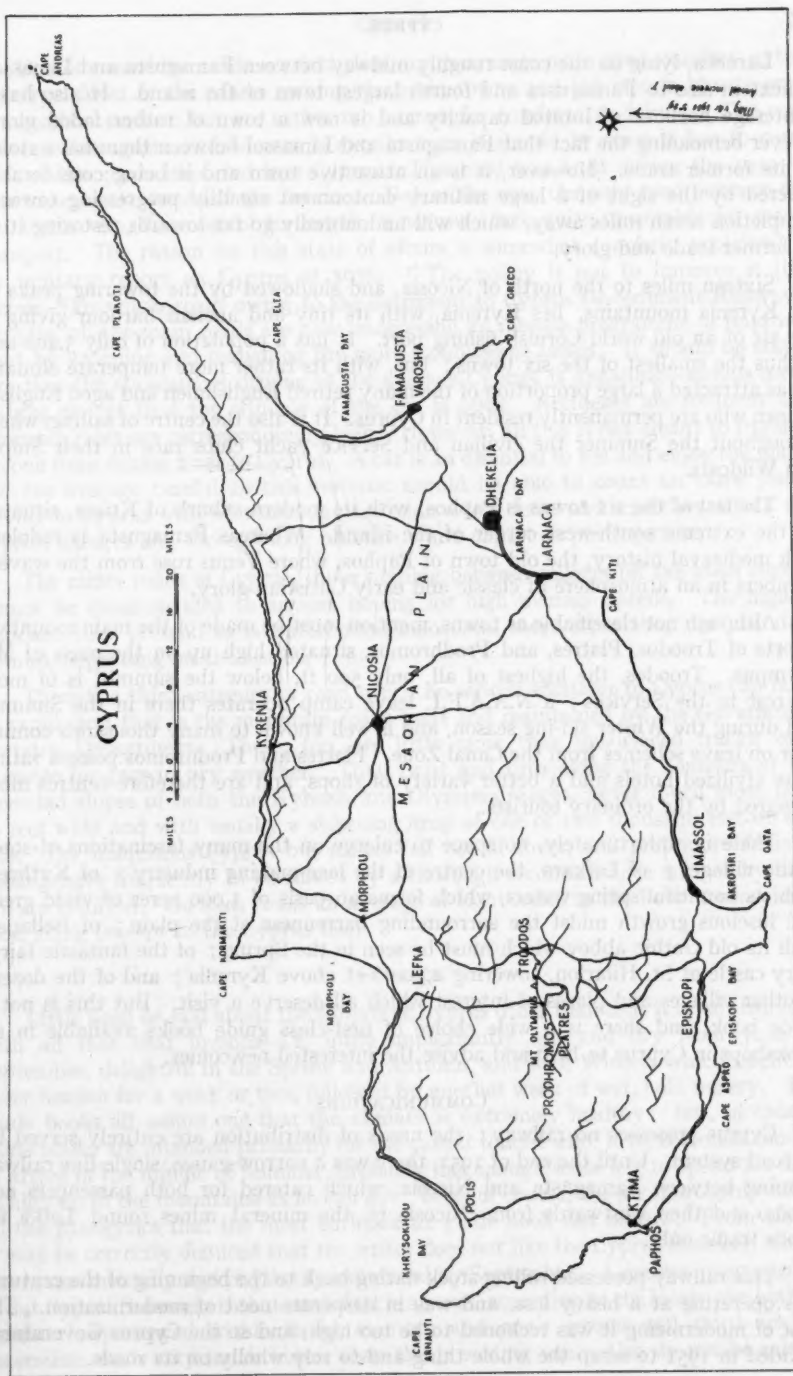
TOPOGRAPHY

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean, conceding size only to Sardinia and Sicily. It is 140 miles long from east to west and some 60 miles broad. It contains two well-defined and distinct mountain systems—the Olympus and Kyrenia ranges. The former occupies nearly the whole of the western half of the island and includes the highest peak of Cyprus, Mt. Olympus, 6,406 ft. high. Generally speaking, the northern slopes of this are covered with pine forests and the southern slopes with vineyards. The Kyrenia range is a narrow rocky ridge running along the north-east coast from Morphou Bay towards Cape Andreas, with a series of peaks varying in height between 2,000 and 3,000 ft. Bounded on the north and west by the Kyrenia and Olympus ranges and on the south and east by the sea lies the Mesaorian Plain—a vast, flat, and largely treeless expanse watered only by a few rivers which dry up for six months out of the year. This plain supports most of the island's population. The soil is of reasonable fertility and produces rain crops of wheat and barley, which are harvested in May and June; where there are sufficient supplies of easily obtained underground water, irrigation crops of citrus fruits and vegetables are also grown.

Thus, Cyprus offers a wide choice of scenery: from the mountain pine-clad slopes on the north of the Olympus range to the endless contoured vineyards on the southern slopes which drop down to the carob and olive orchards nearer the coast; from the rugged wildness of the Kyrenia hills to the plain itself, brown and shimmering in the Summer haze or a mass of vivid and contrasting colours in Springtime. And wherever you may be on the island, there is always not far away the blue of the Mediterranean, making the perfect combination with the dominant browns, greens, and deep red soil of the surrounding countryside.

Nicosia, in the heart of the Mesaorian Plain, is the island's capital and seat of Government. The old town lies huddled behind its Venetian ramparts, while outside the new town, which has sprung up during the last 20 years, sprawls and spreads itself at a prodigious rate, pushing up flats, houses, bungalows, offices, and shops in one colossal medley of architectural styles. Thirty-six miles away to the east lies Famagusta, the main port and the only one possessing a deep water harbour. Here again there is the old town behind ramparts and moat, lying hard up against the modern harbour, which itself is overlooked by Othello's Tower, reputedly the scene of Shakespeare's tragedy. The whole atmosphere of Famagusta is heavily charged with mediaeval history of the most romantic and fascinating texture. Two miles to the south lies Varosha, Famagusta's modern suburb and business centre, with the finest beaches on the island.

Second in size to Nicosia is Limassol, lying in the underbelly of Cyprus. Limassol is the acknowledged business and industrial centre of the island, with a lighterage harbour of fair capacity to deal with its local export trade; it is also the main centre for production of wines and spirits, and possesses a modern brewery, opened in 1951, which produces an excellent light beer perfectly suited to the climate.



Larnaca, lying on the coast roughly midway between Famagusta and Limassol, is next in size to Famagusta and fourth largest town of the island. It also has a lighterage harbour of limited capacity and is now a town of rather faded glory, forever bemoaning the fact that Famagusta and Limassol between them have stolen all its former trade. However, it is an attractive town and is being considerably cheered by the sight of a large military cantonment steadily progressing towards completion seven miles away, which will undoubtedly go far towards restoring it to its former trade and glory.

Sixteen miles to the north of Nicosia, and shadowed by the towering peaks of the Kyrenia mountains, lies Kyrenia, with its tiny and ancient harbour giving it the air of an old-world Cornish fishing port. It has a population of only 3,400 and is thus the smallest of the six towns; but, with its rather more temperate climate, it has attracted a large proportion of the many retired Englishmen and aged Englishwomen who are permanently resident in Cyprus. It is also the centre of sailing, where throughout the Summer the civilian and Service yacht clubs race in their Snipes and Wildcats.

The last of the six towns is Paphos, with its modern suburb of Ktima, situated on the extreme south-west corner of the island. Whereas Famagusta is redolent with mediaeval history, the old town of Paphos, where Venus rose from the waves, slumbers in an atmosphere of classic and early Christian glory.

Although not classifiable as towns, mention must be made of the main mountain resorts of Troodos, Platres, and Prodhromos, situated high up on the mass of Mt. Olympus. Troodos, the highest of all, only 500 ft. below the summit, is of most interest to the Services; a N.A.A.F.I. leave camp operates there in the Summer and during the Winter ski-ing season, and is well known to many thousands coming over on leave schemes from the Canal Zone. Platres and Prodhromos possess rather more civilized hotels and a better variety of shops, and are therefore centres more favoured by the ordinary tourists.

There is, unfortunately, no space to enlarge on the many fascinations of some of the villages; of Lefkara, the centre of the lace-making industry; of Kythrea, with its bountiful spring waters, which forms an oasis of vivid green and luscious growth midst the surrounding barrenness of the plain; of Bellapais with its old Gothic abbey which must be seen in the Spring; of the fantastic fairy-story castle of St. Hilarion, towering 2,500 feet above Kyrenia; and of the dozens of other villages and places of interest which all deserve a visit. But this is not a guide book, and there is a wide choice of first-class guide books available in all bookshops in Cyprus to help and advise the interested newcomer.

COMMUNICATIONS

Cyprus possesses no railway; the needs of distribution are entirely served by its road system. Until the end of 1951, there was a narrow-gauge, single-line railway running between Famagusta and Nicosia, which catered for both passengers and goods, and then westwards from Nicosia to the mineral mines round Lefka for goods traffic only.

This railway possessed rolling stock dating back to the beginning of the century, was operating at a heavy loss, and was in desperate need of modernization. The cost of modernizing it was reckoned to be too high, and so the Cyprus Government decided in 1951 to scrap the whole thing and to rely wholly on its roads.

One or two of the roads are first class, up to average main road standard in this Country. Most of the others serving the main towns and hill resorts have a good tarmacadam surface, but are rather too narrow for comfortable driving. The road between Famagusta and Nicosia is excellent, as it should be since it has to carry most of the goods imported into Cyprus. This road was built during the 1939-45 War to serve the needs of the Services. Before the war, the only road between the two towns was, for most of its length, a narrow track quite unsuitable for motor transport. The reason for this state of affairs is somewhat concisely explained in the military report on Cyprus of 1936. "The policy is not to improve it [the Nicosia-Famagusta road] owing to the detriment to Cyprus Government Railway." Happily, all the main roads are now undergoing an intense programme of improvement by widening and realigning the more troublesome bends. It should be stated here that the standard of driving of the average Cypriot is appalling—signals mean nothing except that the window of the car is open. Accidents are frequent and insurance rates are correspondingly high. However, all this is not meant to frighten anyone from taking a car to Cyprus. A car is an essential to see and enjoy the place, and the average careful British motorist should be able to count on three years' driving in Cyprus with no worse damage than a few dents and scratches, which the Cypriot garages are, through long practice, quite expert at putting right.

The minor roads of Cyprus, those running between villages off the main routes, cannot be recommended to anyone hoping for high average speeds. The highest standard they pretend to is waterbound macadam, more often they are just dust or mud, depending on the season.

There is a third category of road which no serious sightseer to Cyprus can hope to avoid, and that is the mountain roads built and maintained by the Government Forestry Department. These, too, are little more than unsurfaced tracks, only passable for cars in dry weather. They twist and turn along the contours of the pine-clad slopes of both the Kyrenia and Olympus ranges, never much more than 10 feet wide and with usually a sickening drop of one or two thousand feet on one side. The ubiquitous Cyprus bus makes full use of them, and pretty problems of passing have frequently to be solved by a thorough reconnaissance on foot by both drivers involved. On such roads an average of eight miles to the hour is considered good going (except to the Cyprus bus).

CLIMATE

Little need be said about the climate of Cyprus other than that it is sub-tropical, with all that that implies—i.e. quite unpleasantly hot and dry from June to September, delightful in the Spring and Autumn, and with Winters which might be sheer heaven for a week or two, followed by another week of wet, cold misery. The guide books all assure one that the climate is extremely healthy; but, of course, guide books are intended primarily for the casual tourist who, if he is foolish enough to arrive in the middle of Summer, probably has enough sense left to spend his time as high up in the mountains as he can get; here, of course, the air thoroughly fulfils all the panegyrics that the most enthusiastic guide book can bestow. From which it may be correctly deduced that the writer does not like the Cyprus Summer, which leaves one mentally and physically exhausted by September. A curious phenomenon about Cyprus Summers is that one's first is always, according to the locals, the hottest Summer experienced within living memory and one's second and third are, in succession, each very much hotter than the preceding one. Also do not be misled

by the official temperature statistics. These may say that the average maximum temperature in Nicosia in August was 93.4° F., when you remember perfectly well that for nine days out of ten throughout August the thermometer regularly reached 105°. But I must be truthful and fair—Cyprus is a healthy island. In the words of numerous official publicity hand-outs, "Dangerous infectious diseases are practically unknown, and malaria, once widespread, has been completely eradicated in a brilliant campaign which has attracted world-wide attention."

POPULATION

For those who like facts and figures, the population of Cyprus is a little over 500,000, and is increasing rapidly. Of this, roughly 80 per cent. are the Greek-speaking Cypriots, all Christians of the Greek Orthodox Church. Most of the remaining 20 per cent. consist of Mahomedan Turks, descendants of the island's rulers previous to 1878. There is also a sprinkling of other minorities, notably the Armenians, who can be recognized by their names which invariably end in '-ian'; the Armenians are very prominent in the world of commerce and business—at least half of the principal shops in Nicosia seem to be Armenian.

The average Cypriot is a most interesting character—full of natural friendliness, with considerable charm, but highly temperamental and much given to sulks and temper if things fail to go quite the way he thinks they should. Their sense of honesty and truth is generally not high by British standards, but probably a good deal better than that of the average run of Middle East inhabitants. Undoubtedly, their greatest asset is their friendliness and anxiety to help the casual stranger.

Enosis is certainly no cause for personal feelings of bitterness against the British, and the surest way to embarrass a Cypriot whom one does not know particularly well is to raise the subject of Enosis. Even the Greek Orthodox priests, the acknowledged zealots of Enosis under the leadership of Archbishop Makarios, display the same charm and friendliness to any Englishman who approaches them.

The Cypriots are not innately a highly industrious race; the men seem to prefer to sit in the village coffee houses staring at nothing for hours on end with only an occasional word of conversation with their fellow sitters. They do, however, manage to support themselves with their basic need of food and drink and at the same time produce a wide and ever-growing range of exportable goods, minerals, vegetable produce, wines, and a certain amount of manufactured articles. How they do it with such an apparent air of mass inactivity is one of the hidden mysteries of the island.

DISPOSITION OF THE SERVICES

Before the war, the garrison of Cyprus consisted of an infantry company detached from a battalion stationed in Khartoum. Its Winter quarters were at Polymedhia Camp, in a beautiful situation a few miles north of Limassol; in Summer it moved to the bracing airs of Troodos nearly 6,000 ft. up on Mt. Olympus. After the 1931 riots, this company moved to permanent quarters in Nicosia at the understandable request of the Cyprus Government, and they eventually occupied the buildings of the English School, subsequently to be known as Wolseley Barracks.

During the last war, Cyprus became a bastion of the eastern Mediterranean and a convenient training ground for the theatre reserve divisions. Therefore, its military population swelled enormously and the inevitable administrative units sprang into being in various glory holes scattered over the eastern half of the island.

These glory holes generally consisted of accommodation of the most temporary and makeshift nature and were hardly conducive to easy running or functional efficiency. The post-war world tension made any immediate run-down to the pre-war strength out of the question and a sizeable permanent garrison was decided on with its full backing of administrative units (still occupying their wartime accommodation). It was decided in 1949 to install this garrison in a permanent cantonment tailor-made for the purpose, and, after a number of delays, work was eventually started in November, 1952, on the construction of Dhekelia Cantonment seven miles east of Larnaca. This should be completed in 1959 and will then, without doubt, be one of the finest military stations anywhere abroad, with its quota of married quarters, schools, town centre, and all the other amenities that go to make up a self-contained and contented community. The layout has been planned on the most up-to-date town planning principles by a well-known London architect and the site was not, as is usually the case, foisted on the planners to make the best they could of it, but was freely selected as being the nearest available approach to the ideal.

Work has also recently started on a new home for the combined G.H.Q. Middle East Land and Air Forces near Episkopi, on the south coast, 15 miles west of Limassol. The site extends along the top of cliffs 400 ft. high with magnificent views along the coast and where the Summer breezes from the sea can be felt to full advantage.

In the meantime, until these permanent projects are completed, units in Cyprus are compelled to occupy temporary camps. Cyprus District H.Q. occupies Wolseley Barracks in Nicosia, the former quarters of the pre-war garrison company of infantry.

There is a small naval headquarters in Cyprus and also a large R.A.F. station outside Nicosia which shares the facilities of a very fine airfield with Cyprus Airways, a subsidiary of British European Airways.

FAMILY LIFE

Cyprus is, always has been, and, we hope, always will be, a good family station. There are not as yet many married quarters for the Army, but work is shortly going to start on a large married quarters estate at Dhekelia in permanent construction. Also a limited number of temporary hutted married quarters are being built at Dhekelia and Limassol; although these are hutted they are by no means sub-standard and they should be as comfortable and easy to live in as any other type of house. In the meantime, there are a fair number of hirings in all the towns where units are stationed, furnished up to full scale by the W.D. A hirings ceiling is imposed on Cyprus District, so the available numbers are allocated by points. Those with insufficient points can always, without much difficulty, find private accommodation—but at a price, since rents are high, especially for furnished houses.

Servants present a problem and it must be admitted the Cypriots do *not* make good domestics. There are exceptions, of course, and one occasionally meets a lucky family who have had the same domestic for the whole of their tour in Cyprus. But the general rule seems to be a fairly quick turnover of one girl after another. On the other hand, there certainly never seems to be any shortage and the local labour exchange can always produce someone at short notice.

The cost of living is higher than in England, especially for food, but there is an adequate rate of local overseas allowance to look after this. In contrast, the local wines, sherry, and brandy, all very drinkable, are ridiculously cheap—and of course cigarettes and spirits from the N.A.A.F.I. are duty free. So the cost of entertainment

is small, with a consequent high incidence of drink parties in the social life. While on the subject of entertainment, a feature of Cyprus night-life is the cabaret, of which there are two or three in all the main towns. These require no admission fees and one can, in theory, watch a floor show lasting from 10 p.m. to nearly midnight for nothing. However, two or three rounds of drinks is the normal thing and the prices of these are generally fantastic. There are, particularly in Nicosia, several hotels and restaurants where one can get the most excellent meals, judged by any standards. Cypriot food, as produced in the smaller restaurants, is interesting at first acquaintance, but very soon palls.

Schools offer no very serious problems for those with children below boarding school age. In Nicosia, there is a choice of several excellent English schools, while in the other towns the choice may not be so large, but there is generally at least one school suitable for English children up to nine or ten years old. Fees are very moderate. Failing that, there are, of course, army schools wherever there are sufficient families.

Leave is normally taken in the Summer, when it is most needed, and one can either escape to the cool refreshment of the mountain air in the N.A.A.F.I. leave camp at Troodos or swelter in the humid atmosphere of Famagusta and enjoy perfect bathing—or do a combination of the two. Facilities at the Troodos leave camp are somewhat primitive but inexpensive; unless you are particularly lucky, or very senior, you will have to sleep in a tent perhaps 200 yards from where you eat and with a stiff climb back to your tent. There is a children's nursery and dining-room where the children have to eat at special times, which, if they are not old enough to cater for themselves, makes it rather tedious for the parents. On the whole, Troodos is excellent for families possessing children of seven or over, but not so good for those with the 'very smalls.' On the other hand, the beach at Famagusta might have been made for toddlers and the bathing is absolutely safe. There is a N.A.A.F.I.-run leave camp near Famagusta at Golden Sands, but this is unlikely to be operating as such for very much longer. The only alternatives are hotels or boarding houses, which, although comfortable, are, of course, very much more expensive.

Certainly, some time during one's tour, one should take a week or two's leave in the Spring, board out one's very young children with friends, and get off to see the island at its best by car. One will receive plenty of first-hand advice of what must be seen and the difficulty will be to fit everything into one tour.

A car is virtually a necessity, especially for those stationed in Nicosia, as a Sunday outing to Kyrenia in the Summer is always a much-needed tonic to all the family. Members of the Services are allowed to import new cars into Cyprus free of duty, provided that the cars are imported in their own names. Petrol is considerably cheaper than in England, but is of poor quality, no better than the old 'Pool.' Servicing and repair facilities are reasonable, but the workmanship within these facilities is perhaps not so good.

With the exception of rugby, games normal to the Services are available to those who indulge in them. In addition, there are flourishing Services' sailing clubs at Kyrenia, Famagusta, and Larnaca.

From mid-January to April, the snow lies thick at Troodos and the N.A.A.F.I. leave camp opens for the season and hires out full ski-ing equipment at a ridiculously low price. A makeshift but effective ski-lift operates on Sundays. Swimming, of course, is one of the main pastimes in the Summer; the District Officers' Mess in

Nicosia owns an excellent little pool and there is another one for other ranks at the Garrison Club. For the equestrian fraternity, there is a Saddle Club and a race-course at Nicosia. Speleology, or 'pot-holing,' is a pastime which was introduced into Cyprus in 1952 by some adventurous young Sapper officers who explored some fine caves in the Kyrenia mountains and achieved some very respectable depths; the officers concerned have now left Cyprus and I cannot say whether others have taken on where they left off; however, the opportunity is there for those who wish to take it. Finally, for those who like that kind of thing and who have the right kind of blood in their veins, there is a flourishing Caledonian Society, the members of which indulge in private orgies of Scottish dancing during the cooler months of the year.

This is, of course, nothing like a complete catalogue of all the sports and amusements one can find in Cyprus. Shooting, fishing, golf, birdwatching—the list could go on interminably, but a firm line must be drawn somewhere. I have only tried to indicate that there is plenty to do in one's idle time.

That is all I have space to say on the subject of Cyprus as a station, but I hope I have said enough to hint that it is a first-class station. There is a most excellent and amusing little booklet which I can recommend anyone to read after he has been in Cyprus a few months—and that is *Cyprus for Beginners*, available for a pittance at any bookshop in the island.

REGULAR CAREERS AND FUTURE PLANNING

By "SEABORNE"

"This is going to introduce difficult problems; and in solving them do not let us bother unduly about the colour of our uniforms: khaki, dark blue, light blue."

Field-Marshal Viscount Montgomery.

THE theoretically correct solutions of national problems are usually modified in practice or hampered in execution by human factors, and nowhere more frequently than in the Services. Some study of these factors, as they affect the radical reorganization of the Services forecasted for the future, is therefore well worth while. The racing yachtsman studies the tides and uses his knowledge to sail a course which will bring him to his pre-determined mark as quickly and as efficiently as possible. Whatever the goal may be in the reorganization of the Services for future warfare, it will be reached more quickly and more efficiently by using human factors to help than by ignoring them or struggling against them.

Regular officers' careers are, of course, the medium by which the Services are shaped. They provide the planners and the staffs which have to work out the detailed plans for the future and they direct, train, and supervise the ranks which will finally set the seal of success or failure on these plans. They are human, and, however hard they may try, are inevitably affected by factors other than those of pure logic. Let us, therefore, remembering the glimpses of World War III given to us by Field-Marshal Viscount Montgomery, have a look at the career problems of these officers.

The 1953 Gold Medal and Trench Gascoigne prize essay by Wing Commander J. E. T. Haile is a convenient window. This essay concludes that the Services have done all that they can do to adjust the training of the officers to modern conditions, but the material prospects of officers' careers are no longer good enough to attract sufficient candidates of the right calibre. Therefore greater incentives in cash and kind must be offered at once. Naturally, this view will excite the warmest sympathy from all of us. The extent to which the rewards and prestige of an officer's career have declined comparatively and absolutely since the beginning of the century may not be generally realized, disguised as it is by the very great change in the value of money. Without going into it too deeply, before 1914, most Regular officers expected to have a long career and to retire without taking another job. The fact that this is far from true today is a basic reason for the unattractiveness of a Regular officer's career. Meanwhile, the demands of technical developments on ability and of social conditions on leadership have increased greatly and are continuing to increase. The best officers the Country can produce are required to meet these demands. Few, however, will be so optimistic as to expect the Treasury to take Wing Commander Haile's excellent advice to heart. A practicable solution must take into account the interests of the taxpayer as well as those of the officers.

THE SERVICE AS A CAREER

It is very doubtful if the real drawback to a Service career today is the pay and material advantages as such. What, one fancies, are more likely to scare off the parents of a promising boy and to unsettle officers themselves are:—

(a) *Uncertainty about the Future.* It takes about thirty years to reach the upper strata in the Services, and the greater rewards for the very successful or the

security for the moderately successful should be available between thirty to forty years from entry. It may be a safe enough bet that there will be some form of fighting Services thirty to forty years hence. But which Services and which branches will have expanded and which contracted or disappeared? It seems impossible to foretell. The fate of the British officers of the Indian Army will not have passed unnoticed.

(b) *Inadequate Rewards for Technical Ability.* The Services have largely isolated their technicians from higher command. Whether or not the reasons for doing so are sound, a boy with good technical brains may be ill-advised to enter the fighting Services, when the very fact that he has technical ability will tend to divorce him from the direct line of command and the most influential and best rewarded posts.

(c) *The Truncated Career.* In the Services, we have come to accept it as normal to retire between 45 and 55. In any other profession, the average man can look forward to a secure and established position lasting through these years until he retires from work between 60 and 70. In the Services today, only the very successful indeed can hope to defer retirement until 60 and then to live on their pensions. All the others have to start again at an age when they would, in any other profession, be reaping the reward of their experience and reputation.

(d) *The Movement and Uncertainty of Service Life.* Compared to the years before 1914, or even to those between the wars, the financial penalties of movement and uncertainty have increased out of all proportion for the married man with children. When this is added to the other handicaps described above, it becomes serious.

These facts are known fairly widely. One's civilian friends may avoid discussing them out of politeness, but dig a little deeper, and it will be found that most intelligent people are fairly well aware of the facts. They may be kind enough not to depress us by dragging them into conversation, but they are not going to forget them when it comes to choosing a career for a promising boy. We, in the Services, are perhaps too intimately and unpleasantly affected ourselves to welcome discussion, but discussion and thought are better than sitting helplessly and calling on the Treasury to open up.

CAREERS IN A CHANGING WORLD

Uncertainty about the future is unavoidable with science advancing at its present rate. As long as the Services channel their officers' careers as early and as inflexibly as they do now, that uncertainty will be reflected in the individual career and the choice of a Service and of a branch of a Service will remain much of a gamble. The airmen may feel that the future lies with them and not, for example, with the Navy; but are they too happy about the future of bomber and fighter fleets? Nor are four divisions in Europe going to look the same for the Army 30 to 40 years from now. We simply do not know the shape of the Services ten years ahead, let alone for the length of the career of the cadet now at Dartmouth, Sandhurst, or Cranwell. What we can say, with some confidence, is that some arms and some Services will expand and others, we do not know which, will contract.

Faced with a similar situation, the Civil Service would have less difficulty, because the Treasury controls all careers and can draft from one Ministry to another. Something rather similar has occasionally occurred, on a small scale, in the fighting Services, but only as an exception. To take an example, suppose that, as forecasted by the Field-Marshal, convoy protection became the responsibility of the R.A.F. ;

or that, as another body of opinion would prefer, the present responsibilities of Coastal Command were transferred to the Navy. If either of these were to happen as one clean cut, it is probable that a certain number of officers, probably of limited age groups and branches, would be given the opportunity to transfer from one Service to the other, and thus avoid the otherwise inevitable promotion block in the losing Service. Vested interest would probably result in their career prospects being rather less good than their colleagues in the gaining Service, or than they would have been if the change had not taken place. If, however, the change took place gradually and not as a clean cut transfer, it is less likely that a transfer scheme would appear, but the career prospects of the losing Service would gradually decline and more officers would find themselves retired early than would otherwise have happened. Note that neither of these processes is the best possible one, either for the officer or for the taxpayer, who has to find the pensions. Note, too, that many officers of the losing Service, with valuable experience and aptitude for the task, would be forced to sever all connection with it. The nation's interest would be better served if the best men for the job continued to make their careers in it, irrespective of their original Service. The ideal Commander-in-Chief Western Approaches for World War III might as well have come up from Cranwell as from Dartmouth. At the other end of the scale, there would be a host of jobs which could be filled equally well by people who had joined the Navy or the Royal Air Force. Some retraining would be necessary, but probably as much for one Service as for the other, and the changes might well be less than many officers have already seen in one Service in their career. The essential thing would be some central and continuing controlling authority over careers in both Services. This authority would have no temptation to enlist new officers in one Service and retire officers in another whenever it appeared more attractive to the expanding Service to do so. Instead, it would watch the best interests of the officers and of the taxpayers to make the best use of existing human material and only discard it when forced to do so by incompetence, unwillingness to learn, or old age.

Transfers are, indeed, by no means unheard of at present, but the system, or lack of it, is not enough. First, transfer only takes place by special arrangement when changes are sudden and drastic. Most changes are slow yet, nevertheless, affect individual careers greatly. Secondly, the possibility of transfer cannot be counted upon and, if granted, transfers are limited to certain age groups and branches. Officers cannot, therefore, look upon the possibility of a transfer as anything more than a last resort with the odds much against it.

" KHAKI, DARK BLUE, LIGHT BLUE "

The suggested central authority would represent the career factor when decisions have to be made about the control of new weapons and new methods. It would be the yachtsman's tide-table, telling him, not what his mark should be but where to steer to reach it quickly and efficiently. In the example above, this human factor might well decide between the two alternatives of giving the Navy the aircraft and giving the job to the Royal Air Force. If it now seems almost indecent to mention this factor, perhaps it is because we have pushed it into the subconscious as, before Freud, the Victorians did sex.

Failure to recognize the career factor cannot but lead to a general reluctance of the Services as a whole to abandon old methods. The need for co-operation between the Services in meeting the new conditions has been emphasized in Field-Marshal Viscount Montgomery's recent address. To accept the fact that this co-operation is essential and to ignore that staffs and committees are composed of human beings

who cannot be entirely insensitive to the careers of themselves and others in their own Services, is equivalent to ignoring the human factor in battle. It is not, after all, entirely selfish or unpatriotic to wish to continue to devote one's energy and ability and the traditions of one's own Service to the good of the Country, rather than to stand aside and hand over to those who happen to be wearing uniform of the lucky colour. Nor can the Country afford to discard energy, ability, and traditions in this extravagant way. To revert, for a moment, to the example of convoys discussed earlier, consideration on these lines might well throw doubts on the advisability of jettisoning the sea traditions and practical know-how of the Navy, for the sake of theoretical uniformity in the handling of the Air Arm. An atmosphere of confidence that, whatever changes take place, ability will prosper and talents receive adequate employment without too much regard to the particular Service of their owner, is an essential for the Field-Marshal's requirement of planning regardless of colour of coat.

By now, the reader will be wondering whether it is proposed to put fighter pilots in command of destroyers and vice versa. There is no doubt that the difficulty in change of employment from one Service to another is real. Having said this, it is fair to point out that there is also a considerable degree of artificiality in the distinctions between the functions of individuals in the various Services. We have seen in recent years infantry generals and horse cavalry change over to armour and, a generation earlier, officers of both Services founded the Royal Air Force. While mass interchange of officers is neither practicable nor suggested, it is not unreasonable to suggest that a great deal more can be done than is traditionally supposed.

Taking the easier problems first, the work of technical and administrative services are very similar and there seems to be no reason why they should be kept as distinct as they are today. The doctor has to deal with almost exactly the same problems in all three Services. The engineer's problem is more specialized, but has a large common foundation. Much the same applies to the secretarial, pay, and store-keeping branches. A start could be made by the closer integration of these services and the ironing out of unnecessary distinctions in their work. Bearing in mind that only the interchange of personnel and assimilation of methods is required, no vast system of integrated financial control would be necessary at this stage. As a by-product, considerable economies by way of integrated administrative staffs and services would probably appear.

The interchange of personnel in the command or executive branches is also quite possible up to the age of about 30, as has been proved by many loan and secondment schemes. After this it becomes more difficult until the higher command levels are reached and the problem of command becomes increasingly inter-Service. We may, one day, have a common entry of cadets with a common basic training, who then diverge to different Services and arms, possibly returning to the common stream later. Futuristic as this may seem, it would undoubtedly have very great advantages in the sort of warfare which may lie ahead. Greater facility of interchange at the levels where it is practicable would be a step towards that.

To summarize then, a great deal could be done now to remove artificial distinctions between the work of various Services, specialization at certain command levels must remain, but exchange schemes are practicable and desirable. By doing what is possible now, we may help ourselves to find the right way for further progress later. To achieve this, a central authority is required with co-ordinating responsibilities over officers' careers. To help make its work effective, artificial differences in Service methods should be progressively ironed out.

THE PROBLEM OF TECHNICIANS

All three Services agree that technical development and technical education are of great and increasing importance. Yet there is little doubt that the wise father, advising his son how to reach the top in any of the Services, would warn him to beware of acquiring technical qualifications. Behind this lies the theory that technical work makes such demands on time that there is none left to acquire command and tactical knowledge and experience adequate to the higher ranks.

All officers between the ages of 20 and 30 are, of course, largely concerned with some technique or other. If not maintaining an aircraft, then piloting it; if not repairing a tank, then running it. At this level, officers of all branches have to command small bodies of men but, for reasons which are partly traditional, some of these techniques are more closely associated with command than others. With the continually changing face of modern warfare, it is exceedingly probable that some of these associations are out of date or would, at least, be better for an unbiased survey.

After 30, the work of those in the main command stream of their Service becomes rather more tactical and more closely associated with actual command; but it is not until the 40's that it becomes clear which officers are going to stop at the regimental or unit level and which will rise beyond it. At this stage, the technicians drop out of the race and can only hope for a limited number of staff and advisory posts. May it not be that, in a highly technical warfare of the future, early training and experience in the technical branches will be as good a preparation for higher command as time spent in the so called non-technical branches? For those of us without technical education, it is nice to hear that we have something even better, a mysteriously acquired width of vision, but such theories are based more on habitual grooves of thought than on fact and logic. In real life, the right man for command may turn up anywhere. He will need some experience of commanding smaller units before he progresses to the command of larger, but, as is proved in every war, the amount of time required for this, measured in years, is not very great. For that matter, the total time in command of something which most officers get in their first 20 years is not so great that it could not be fitted into a technical career.

Under any system there will be some officers who, as their careers progress, become intensively specialized in higher technical matters and thus tend away from command appointments. The weakness of the present system is that the diversion of the technical specialist takes place too young and is too effective in preventing officers with technical qualifications reaching higher command appointments. As a result, the Services fail to make the best use of the available officer material and lose the leavening of technical knowledge at the top. The Battle of Britain was largely won by the adoption of radar and the eight-gun fighter. These wise technical measures were authorized by an Air Council composed of officers who started their careers as pilots in the 1914-18 War, but it seems doubtful whether this was any better preparation for their future great decisions than a more technical background, for some of them, might have been.

THE TRUNCATED CAREER

It is true that those officers who are going to achieve high command must be promoted young. At present, we tend to base the average career too much on the exceptional. Because 50 may be about the right age to command a modern army, it is not logically necessary to work strictly down the age and rank list throwing out everyone who fails to get promoted at the rate of a future army commander. On the

whole, this fact is fairly well recognized in the Army, which has the advantage of a comparative wealth of staff and garrison appointments to which older officers may be appointed. At the other extreme, the Navy, perhaps because it has few suitable appointments for older officers, gets rid of its captains—surely successful officers to have attained this rank—at about 48–50, at the moment they fail to be promoted. Thus, at this critical stage, there is only one pace for promotion, whether for the future First Sea Lord or for the sound sea captain.

The thought behind this is, undoubtedly, that those who are not to be promoted further must clear out to make room in their ranks for those below them. Were the fact recognized that early retirement is an evil to be remedied, not an inevitable phenomena of the fighting Services, something could be done to remedy matters. The long term remedy would be to reduce intake. The central authority suggested above might well control intake as well as transfer and thus avoid flooding the market with officers requiring to be promoted.

Reduced intake and fewer young Regular officers might be unwelcome, but it is necessary if we are to arrive at any practical means of improving the status and career of the Regular officer. The resultant shortages of junior Regular officers could be met: by using National Service officers in place of Regulars; by using older officers, who show less ability, in the more static junior jobs; and possibly by increased use of quarter-masters and senior non-commissioned officers in some appointments. A welcome result would be a rise in the efficiency of the junior Regular officer. He would have to face more severe selection on entry owing to the reduced numbers accepted. He would get more responsibility and greater activity while he was young—from about the age of 22 he would be a comparatively rare bird. Then in the long run, the increased attraction of a Regular career would draw a wider range of applicants from whom the best would be selected.

The fact that all officers would not progress at the same rate would produce a wider range of ages in each rank. The rival conceptions of promotion, seniority, and selection have always existed. The XIXth Century saw the elimination of the factors of birth, wealth, and patronage, with consequent emphasis on seniority. Since then, selection has regained its prominence, but there has been some carry-over of the idea that, by and large, rank is closely related to age. The beneficial reduction in age of higher commanders has, for this reason, been reflected in all round reduction in retiring age which is not necessarily so beneficial. There is no real reason why this should be so. All three Services are already used to the idea of younger men commanding older. Little more is needed in this respect than the elimination of a few survivals of age for rank ideas from existing promotion regulations.

The retention of a reasonable standard of physical and mental fitness would be a necessary condition of prolonged service. We should have to have the moral courage to say to individuals that they had aged too rapidly and must go or step down to a routine job, rather than to assume that everyone ages at the same rate and insist that all leave fairly early. All this would be to the good.

THE INSTABILITY OF SERVICE LIFE

The uncertainty and movement of a Service life is, in itself, the least important deterrent to Service careers. Indeed, most of us join the Service to see the world and, under good conditions, this prospect would continue throughout our career to be one of the greatest attractions of the Service. At present, the penalties are too great. It is significant that of all the Crown Services, the fighting Services are the

worst treated in respect of foreign service and movement allowances and privileges. One reason for this is that there are too many of us. We do not want to blackmail the Treasury by the threat of scarcity, but the fact is that, with three different Services, each with numerous branches, and all of them entering Regular officers as it suits their short-term needs, the Country simply cannot afford to look after its Regular officers and pay them adequate allowances for disturbance and foreign service. For the taxpayer, of course, there are few worse bargains than an indifferently efficient or inadequately employed Regular officer.

Another reason for apparent niggardliness is the excessive pension charges that fall on the taxpayer. The Regular officer looks critically enough on his pension prospects. The Treasury actuaries, viewing the comparatively short time it takes to earn and the long years through which it must be paid, think his pension highly generous. Officer and actuary both, of course, derive their difficulties from the same thing, the shortness of the average Service career. It inflates the actuarial cost of pensions by reducing the years during which the pension is earned and increasing those through which it is drawn. It shortens the years during which the officer is on full pay, so that he is forced to draw pension instead of pay, before his children have completed their education and when he is still active enough to want to lead a full life. Pensions should be for the old, not for the middle aged. Until we get that right, the Service will remain an unsatisfactory career.

With a central authority controlling the entry of Regulars and ensuring that, once entered, their working lives will be fully used, the Country could afford to pay them allowances on similar scales to those of the diplomatic service, civil servants sent abroad, or a civilian employed by a good firm. Given this and the fact that an officer and his wife could look forward to a career lasting until he was 60, they would weather the troubles of postings and separations during the years between 30 and 50. When, as now, they know that the uncertainties of the earlier years will be only too certainly followed by early retirement, they are deprived of the background of security essential to a satisfactory career.

CONCLUSION

Planning for the fighting Services for the future should be firmly based on an officer's career structure designed to meet radical changes as part of the continued process of keeping in step with scientific progress. The present system is one which we have inherited from a far more stable past. If the system itself is not adapted to the present era, of which radical changes are likely to be a major feature, it will present an obstacle to those changes. This means that, on the one hand, the changes are slowed up and meet conscious or sub-conscious resistance; and, on the other, the system will show signs of strain and break down. These symptoms are already appearing. To seek the palliative of greater cash incentive is not only unrealistic, but unsound. The fundamental weakness of the existing system is the inflexibility of the individual career between Service and Service and between branch and branch within each Service. This inflexibility must inevitably influence staffs and planners, try though they may to face the problems of the future with unbiased minds. To get the right mental background with which to face the future, we should drag this problem out of the subconscious and, instead of trying to ignore it, try to see what can be done about it.

What could be done, is to set up a central authority responsible for making the best use of Regular officers of the Services to man whatever weapons or organization

The price for all this is the review and possible surrender of certain practices and customs. Some of these may now seem inevitable, but many of them have grown up in a rather haphazard way in the last two hundred years and are now buttressed as much on vested interests and habit of thought as upon reason.

GORDON SHEPARD FIRST PRIZE ESSAY, 1953-54¹

By WING COMMANDER W. G. LAWRENCE, R.A.F.

"The increasing complexity of modern weapons is demanding an ever greater degree of specialization than in the past. Discuss the effect of this trend on the training of officers in the G.D. Branch and suggest how the opposing requirements of specialization and wide experience can best be resolved."

IT has been stated that "the increasing complexity of modern weapons is demanding an ever greater degree of specialization than in the past." The truth of this statement is at once obvious to all who read the technical or scientific journals of today, especially those related to aviation. To the Royal Air Force this trend brings with it a problem which is itself complex—the training of officers, and in particular officers of the General Duties Branch.

The intention of this paper is to discuss, and endeavour to resolve, our problem on the assumption that officers of branches other than the G.D. Branch are accepted as specialists and that G.D. officers are what the title implies. It is fundamental that the term 'specialization' be regarded as applying to the broad field of both maintenance and usage of modern weapons.

BY DEFINITION

What do we understand by the titles G.D. (General Duties) and specialization? One has only to serve on an R.A.F. station for a short period to realize that today there is a considerable difference of opinion as to their true meaning. Before attempting to discuss the problem, it is perhaps well that we accept a common interpretation of the terms around which it is set.

The Oxford Dictionary defines 'General' as "Not restricted to one department—not partial or particular," 'Duties' as "a moral obligation—things we ought to do," and 'Specialization' as "pertaining to specialist—a person devoting himself to a single branch of his profession or subject."

From these simple definitions it may be argued that all officers are in fact specialists. While there can be little doubt that there is a modicum of truth in such an argument, the conception of a G.D. officer is that he is a person of wide experience rather than a specialist. To understand and appreciate the true position as it obtains today, it is necessary to examine the background of the G.D. Branch and the many changes which, by force of circumstances, have taken place within the structure of the Royal Air Force over the past 20 years. To quote Lord Tedder, "We must look toward the future from the past." Let us, therefore, examine for a brief moment the position as it obtained in the 1930's.

IN THE PAST—1930

The G.D. officer was first and foremost a pilot—his very existence as a Royal Air Force officer was based on this point. His initial training (ex R.F.C. and R.N.A.S. officers excepted) was either as a cadet at the R.A.F. College, Cranwell, or as a short service officer at one of the flying training schools. Both received the same basic training, but that of the cadet (the cornerstone of our edifice and career officer) was more comprehensive and continued over a longer period. The short service officer was, to all intent and purpose, a working reserve.

¹ A competition open only to serving members of the R.A.F and W.R.A.F. Published by kind permission of the Air Ministry.

After initial training, both cadets and short service officers were posted to squadrons for active service which amounted to continuation training. During this latter phase of their service certain officers were selected by recommendation and examination to undergo a course of specialist training at one of the R.A.F. training establishments. The subject in which they specialized was either engineering, armament, signals, navigation, or photography. On successful completion of the course, which varied from nine months to two years (five in cases where the officer proceeded to a university following his course), they were annotated as a specialist in their particular subject and accordingly posted for duty, but retaining G.D. status. The broad policy was to alternate their employment for periods of two years between flying and specialist duties. (Equipment, accounting, and medical officers were full-time specialists and not of the G.D. Branch, although a number of the last learned to fly.)

Those officers who did not specialize but remained solely on flying duties were often given various responsibilities such as catering, fire, M.T., and, where no specialist officer was available, officer-in-charge of engineering, armament, or signals section. They were in reality a figurehead for administrative purposes, and it often happened that an officer found himself filling several different roles—apart from his primary role of pilot—in the space of a few years. This was G.D. in the full sense; it was never questioned.

Weapons of the period were relatively simple when compared with those of today, but their efficient use depended more upon the skill of the individual operator than upon the operator with the backing of a highly skilled maintenance staff, who today form—with the aircrew—an integral part of a fighting team. To quote Lord Trenchard, "a good gun mounting is one that a pilot can use." Progress in air armament was slow and in fact impeded by the politicians of that day.

In spite of all this, 'specialization' was introduced by the middle of the 1930's. It had been found that the G.D. specialist was not able to keep pace with both flying and his specialist subject, and that often when he was of most value as a pilot he was required elsewhere. In practice, it amounted to the officer being always two years behind in both spheres of activity, and for this reason a number of selected warrant officers were commissioned as commissioned armament, engineer, and signals officers for employment as practical specialists. Apart from these, and the equipment, accountant, and medical officers, all officers remained G.D.

This was the broad picture of the past in a force of some 33,000 officers and men. Life was an adventure, romantic and exhilarating. The officers and men were a happy, corporate body with a singleness of purpose and a common aim—to fly. General duties were incidental.

THE PRESENT

The period from 1939 to the present time has been one of constant change, changes necessitated by war and threat of war; changes not only within the Royal Air Force but in the tempo and philosophy of life itself, which have had repercussions, not only upon the Royal Air Force, but on the Nation as a whole. However, it is the Royal Air Force with which we are concerned.

We may say, and rightly, that the methods of training and the foundation that was so well and truly laid by the pioneers of military flying have stood the test of time and war; yet we cannot say with truth that the broad picture of the past represents our Service of today. The picture has not mellowed with age, rather it

has become a turbulent and changing scene. The trend towards specialization, so evident in the world of industry and commerce, has of sheer necessity taken root within the Service organization by the introduction of the Technical and other specialized branches, separate from that of General Duties. There is division of opinion, often bitter, between branches; especially is this so between those of the G.D. and Technical Branches, and to a lesser degree within the branches themselves. While it is true that much of the diversity of opinion is centred around personalities and human nature rather than around the real problem of keeping abreast of modern thought, the dissension is very real. Such conflict of opinion is perhaps inevitable in a world of new ideas and changing values—it is human nature.

When considering the present situation, the first point that comes to mind is the change in numerical strength in men and aircraft and the role which our Service is now called upon to fill, coupled with the complex and highly specialized weapons now being developed. From a mere 33,000 officers and men in 1930 the permanent strength has increased to almost 300,000; where it required an average backing of ten men to maintain one aircraft in the air it now requires 180. This point alone presents a formidable overall training problem, but when related to the role of the Royal Air Force and complexity of weapons, the problem becomes even more complex.

The role, although basically the same as in the past, has been extended and widened in scope by events of the past ten years.

It may be widened still more in the not too distant future. The present role, as defined by the Air Staff, is:—

1. A long range bomber force.
2. Defence of United Kingdom and Middle East.
3. Defence of sea routes.
4. Close support of land forces and maintenance of air superiority.
5. Transport force.
6. Photographic and meteorological reconnaissance.
7. Air-Sea Rescue.

It is obvious that in filling this role the variation in types of weapons to be used is considerable, and no one man could master them all.¹

It may be asked, is the title 'G.D.' for any one branch now out of date? If we accept the definition, and are honest with ourselves, the answer is yes—we are all specialists in some particular subject or branch of our profession, and at the same time all G.D. in varying degree. Undoubtedly there is a difference between the accepted G.D. officer of today and the G.D. officer of 1930; and even between G.D. officers of the present time. Garnett, in his book *War in the Air*, refers to the difference between the bomber and fighter pilot so noticeable during the 1939-45 War; one the cool calculating mind, the other a cavalier, devil-may-care personality.

This difference has left its mark, not only in the sphere of flying, but in other spheres of activity where ex-aircrew are employed—a fact which tends to bear witness that in the course of time we all lean towards specialization. By analysis of

¹ In 1948, the Air Council decided that, with the increase in range, speed, and complexity of modern aircraft, it would be difficult to give G.D. officers sufficiently wide experience to make them thoroughly proficient both as pilots and navigators. Navigators and pilots were therefore placed on an equal career basis, with comparable career prospects. (A.M.O. A.410/48.)

the present G.D. Branch, we may deduce that it has three distinct categories of officers—the pre-war Regular officer, the war-time entrants, and the young post-war officer. It may be argued that the difference, if any, is one of age groups and nothing else, but this is not so in reality. The rapid change in armament has produced a corresponding change in aircrew psychology—new physical requirements have, to a degree, imposed an age limit for active flying duties; it has produced new methods and techniques in the art of flying and air warfare; and at the same time increased the number of subjects of which a pilot and navigator must have knowledge. While it is true that in the past we had the older experienced officer, the not-so-old or experienced, and the newly appointed flying officer, the changes that did take place were more gradual and time was given to adapt oneself to new conditions, thus permitting training and experience to progress together along a steady path. These variations of today, however, are inevitable in this period of transition from the old to the new air force—they will pass with the passage of time and may be disregarded in so far as training the future officer is concerned.

With regard to the armament of the present day, here too we are in a state of transition from old to new. An example of this is to be seen in the continued use of Lincolns and Washingtons by Bomber Command, while Fighter Command, already equipped with jet attackers, are now being equipped with more modern weapons. The aeroplane is no longer the sole weapon of the Air Force; the development of new weapons in the field of electronics and nuclear physics is, by the efforts of scientists and serving officers alike, going ahead to an extent that must inevitably entail still greater changes in our Service.

To summarize the present is perhaps best done by a reference to the past. It is comparable with the period 1912 (*Report of The Air Committee and constitution of the R.F.C. by Royal Warrant*) to 1918, when the Royal Air Force came into being. The events of that time are now history and admirably recorded in Raleigh's *War in the Air*; suffice to say that it was a period of rapid change—adventure into the unknown, an adventure which produced a Service second to none. So today that same Service is passing through a period of transition from old-established concepts to a new era of conquest, the jet and atomic era, the era of precision and scientific flying linked with a new phase in defence by offence.

THE FUTURE

The future must always remain an unknown quantity, for we can never catch up with it. We can only imagine what it holds. One thing is certain—the methods and techniques of the last war are past history and obsolete. In so far as the Royal Air Force is concerned, it is perhaps best summed up in the words of Tennyson:—

“For I dipt into the future, far as human eye could see.

Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonders that would be;

Saw the heavens filled with commerce, argosies of magic sails,

Pilots of the purple twilight dropping down with costly bales;

Heard the heavens filled with shouting and there rained a ghastly dew

From the Nations, airy navies grappling in the central blue;

Far along the world-wide whisper of the South wind rushing warm,

With the standards of the people plunging through the thunder storm;

Till the war-drums throb no longer and the battle flags are furled

In the Parliament of man—The Federation of the World.”

Whether the future takes us to the stratosphere, the ionosphere, to atomic or biological warfare, to the use of airborne armies, or to speeds of 10,000 miles per hour, these words depict our future, our aim, our destiny. To fulfil that destiny we must be 'of the air.'

GENERAL DUTIES AND WIDE EXPERIENCE

We have seen in our brief survey of the past how the G.D. Branch is, to use the analogy of an oak tree, the trunk from which all other branches have grown. Its roots are buried in the past, it has grown to a state where it supports its branches and is equally supported by them, thus forming an entity with a character and tradition of its own. The times have changed, yet as with the tree it is the trunk that remains the principal member through which the complete unit lives, for without aircraft there could be no air force.

The late Major Burke, of No. 2 Squadron fame (1912), once stated that "a man cannot always be employed on the job that will be given him on active service, but he should be trained with that in view—every other employment must be regarded as temporary and a side issue." This maxim was accepted and practised; although basically trained as soldiers the primary function of all officers was to fly. This was the foundation on which the G.D. Branch was built.

Today the function of the Royal Air Force remains, as it always will, conquest of the air. Whether we employ conventional aircraft, pilotless aircraft, or guided missiles, it remains the same, but circumstances have changed to such an extent that mastery of the simple art of flying is no longer the single aim for which R.A.F. officers must be trained. Military flying is in itself now the work of a specialist—pilot, navigator, signaller; they are all specialists. Likewise, technical, movements, air traffic control, fighter control, equipment, and secretarial officers are all specialists in their own particular subject. The number of officers required to operate a modern air force is so large, and the number of specialized duties so numerous, that it is impossible to train every officer for active flying duties. There are, however, duties which are common to all officers and which all should be capable of fulfilling. These are in fact the basis of General Duties at all levels.

We must assume that officers possess, in varying degree, the qualities required of an officer. That being so, there is a common datum line from which Service experience may be said to begin and it is at this point that our problem really arises—"How can we satisfy the need for specialization and at the same time ensure that, in the course of time, wide experience is obtained?" Let us consider what will help to give a man wide experience by the time he is mature enough to accept a high position of responsibility. The first requirement in filling such a post is undoubtedly a sound knowledge of human nature, coupled with the ability to lead, guide, and control men—in short, to command. We cannot all have the same degree of ability, it varies with each one of us. Nevertheless, the employment of officers as section, flight, and squadron commanders, wherein they must learn and know the law and regulations applicable to everyday administration of men and materials, is the obvious path by which experience is gained. Whatever branch an officer may serve in, he should be capable, commensurate with rank, of fulfilling these duties. Such items as dealing with minor charges, being a member of courts of inquiry, investigations, courts martial, the execution of drill and discipline, the welfare of subordinates, the proper care and usage of equipment and property, all these and many other duties fall properly under the heading of General Duties and must in time, if conscientiously followed, bring wide experience of human nature and of the Service.

It may be argued that in a war of the future such duties will not fall to the lot of an officer engaged on active flying duties, therefore they must be counted as 'side issues' and left to other officers to perform. If this argument is true, and it may well be so, the young G.D. officer is no longer G.D. but very much a specialist. A view often expressed within the Royal Air Force regarding the G.D. officer is that, by virtue of being in the G.D. Branch, he is of wide experience. While it may apply to the officer of mature age it cannot possibly do so to the young, immature officer. Flying by itself does not bring wide experience of life—it does not create brain, rather brain creates flying—it can only bring wide experience in that particular part of our work. On the other hand, the primary function of the Royal Air Force is to fly, and it is right and proper that all officers have some knowledge and experience of flying and its application under circumstances peculiar to the fighting Services. Nevertheless, do not let us be led into thinking that employment on flying alone will bring the wide experience which is required of a senior officer. Throughout his years of service an officer must continue to train and educate himself by reading and studying subjects away and beyond the limits of Service life. It is a combination of all these activities that brings wide experience.

No officer in his span of three score years and ten can possibly specialize in a hundred and one subjects. First, because the subject of aviation is today a combination of many subjects complex in nature, and requiring long periods of specialized study; secondly, we are not all endowed with equal gifts of intellect or the same individual interests. Nevertheless, it is possible for a person to specialize in a particular subject and, at the same time, have other wide and varied interests which, when linked with those activities we have mentioned, will in the course of time bring wide experience.

There can be no doubt that the need for a commander to be of wide experience is very real, but in this modern age of scientific warfare the person who has specialized in a particular subject which is an integral part of the profession as a whole, and is also of wide experience, is more likely to be a better commander than one who is perhaps a 'jack of all trades and master of none.' We have a very good example of this in the generalship of T. E. Lawrence, who was in the first instance an expert in a particular subject. His subsequent task as a commander in war entailed the use of aircraft, armoured cars, small arms, and camels. To enable him to command efficiently he made it a personal responsibility to learn about them, and how to use them, by practical experience. He used aeroplanes, so he flew, he used armoured cars, so he learned to drive them and use them in battle, he used camels, so he studied them. Therein lies the secret of wide experience—to gain knowledge of our profession by first-hand experience in its many spheres of activity additional to our own particular subject, taking the job that is given and learning it from beginning to end. Personal contact between officers of different specialization enables them to appreciate and understand, in some measure, each other's problems in relation to the overall task.

Whatever career may be worked out for an officer to follow, or whatever programme of training may be devised to give an officer wide experience, the ultimate result depends to a great extent upon the officer himself. The fact that he is a G.D. officer by title is no criterion that he is, or will be, of wide experience. His interest must be first and foremost the Royal Air Force and all that it stands for. He must study its history and learn from the past, he must keep abreast of current affairs, both national and international, military and political, all of which is part and parcel of the wider sphere of General Duties. An officer who is not of aircrew category

cannot properly command a squadron or a wing of aircraft ; likewise one who is not a doctor cannot properly command a hospital. They are both specialist appointments, but providing an officer has the experience, commensurate with service and rank, and possesses the qualities of a leader, as he should do, he may well be capable of commanding any station or base formation, or of holding administrative staff appointments irrespective of branch or title because he is qualified as a G.D. officer.

SPECIALIZATION

By specializing in a particular subject relevant to our profession, it does not necessarily mean that we are experts, although that should be the ultimate aim. The Royal Air Force is in itself a profession embodying specialists in subjects which are part of separate and dissimilar professions, as for example, doctors and mechanical and electrical engineers. The same may be said of pilots and navigators, but in all cases the subjects are also related to the particular profession—the Royal Air Force. By this reasoning we may deduce that it is a profession which in reality is a union of professions having a minimum common standard against which an officer's professional ability is assessed. That being so, then it is logical to say that as all officers are professional airmen, but specializing in various subjects, all must be, in some degree, specialists.

There can be no doubt that specialization is a vital necessity in the Royal Air Force. While it is true that the aircraft remains the principal weapon of the Royal Air Force, it must be remembered that the Service has other heavy responsibilities placed upon it. It operates a complex radar organization, a world-wide communication system ; it is concerned with engineering, supplies, intelligence services, medical research, a vast meteorological organization, and the development of guided missiles. These are but a few of the many responsibilities, additional to flying, which require the service of specialist officers.

The fact that specialization is a necessity introduces not only the problem of training but also of career planning, which in turn is closely related to the economics of any training plan. In these modern times it is seldom that a specialist as he advances in knowledge and experience remains in a position wherein his work is of a practical nature. There are, as in most things, exceptions to the rule, e.g., a surgeon, but taken by and large, the statement holds true. In normal circumstances he passes on to an executive or advisory appointment. This is equally true of the Royal Air Force, where specialist executives and advisers are essential, but there is a limitation to the number of such appointments. The majority of our senior executive posts beyond Group level are of an administrative nature rather than specialist, although specialist knowledge is a great asset. The essential requirement is wide experience and administrative ability, coupled with a whole-hearted belief in the purpose of the Royal Air Force. Many good examples of this point were seen during the 1939-45 War.

It follows, therefore, that if specialists in the Service are to be given a reasonable career they must be given the opportunity to fill senior executive posts ; alternatively, they retire at an early age and become lost to the Royal Air Force. Whether the argument that a G.D. officer is, in fact, a specialist is acceptable or not, his career is planned to cover a shorter period of time unless he is fortunate enough to reach a relatively senior rank. Against this, his promotion is accelerated in relation to the accepted specialist. It may well be that in either case we stand to lose the services of a capable person at an early age.

A point of interest that comes to mind when studying this problem of specialization in relation to a career plan is the recent announcement that a number of senior specialist officers in the Technical Branch have reverted to the G.D. Branch after serving for some 14 or 15 years as specialist officers. This can only imply that, from a Service point of view, there is little difference between General Duties and specialization, for the title they now bear can have no effect upon their ability as professional R.A.F. officers. It does, however, lead to the thought that the training of officers as specialists, and subsequent employment as such over a number of years, may well lead to producing a more truly representative General Duties officer. This brings us to the heart of our problem, training the G.D. officer.

THE TRAINING PROBLEM

The foregoing paragraphs have been written on the assumption that, in principle, all officers of branches other than G.D. are considered as specialists. It would be foolish to assume—even by accepting the title in its broadest sense—that the G.D. Branch as at present constituted holds no specialist. On the contrary, few people would disagree with the view that the active flying crews of today are very much specialists, but our problem takes us beyond the stage of active flying, or, in the case of aircrew, through the flying stage.

Obviously, wide experience should be a qualification of any senior officer in the Royal Air Force. Would it not, therefore, be better to consider the training of all officers rather than to single out one particular branch for consideration? All branches of the Royal Air Force—in fact, all fighting Services—are today interdependent, and complete segregation in training may well lead to misunderstanding and confusion.

Let us consider for a moment the career that an officer of high rank would, under normal circumstances, be expected to have followed after his initial training. Whether G.D. or specialist, he will have served in a squadron or flying unit, have been a section, flight, squadron, and wing commander in turn. (The non-flying specialist would not, of course, under present circumstances, have commanded in the air.) He will have attended the principal courses of training both as a specialist (this may or may not include flying) and as a General Duties officer, e.g., courses at the R.A.F. Flying College, C.F.E., Technical College, School of Administration, and Staff College. At intervals of time he will have served as a staff officer at Group, Command, and Air Ministry level, and will have seen service in overseas commands.

Such is the career we envisage, in general terms, that brings wide experience. It is a career that our training organization was designed to cover in the past, but in this present age, and that of the future, a senior commander will undoubtedly be required to have a deeper knowledge and understanding of a greater variety of subjects than heretofore. It may well be that in some cases it will be necessary for him to specialize, as for example in combined operations, strategy and war planning, logistic planning, supplies, integration of military and foreign policy, mobilization, utilization of manpower, and perhaps, with the development of guided missiles and the like, air operations, which, after all, is his primary function.

Assuming that specialization in one of these subjects is accepted as a necessity, at what stage in the officer's career would specialization begin? The subjects would undoubtedly fall within the curriculum of the Staff College or the Imperial Defence College courses, but not to the degree of specialization. To specialize in the full meaning of the word, it would be necessary to begin study reasonably early in an

officer's career, but bearing in mind that only a very limited number of officers are likely to rise to the rank or position where such specialization is a necessity, it would be uneconomical to provide special training within the Service organization for all officers. On the other hand, such specialists as equipment, technical, and secretarial officers may well touch upon these subjects in the course of their normal specialist training and deal with them at appropriate levels in the performance of their duties.

Turning to the need for specialization at a lower level, it is perhaps true to say that we have a tendency to think of it as being peculiar only to the Technical Branch, whereas in reality it applies equally to all branches within the Royal Air Force, the G.D. Branch being no exception. It is in relation to this fact that the main difficulty arises. A training programme for officers to specialize as a pilot, navigator, signaller, engineer, and equipment or secretarial officer is a comparatively simple matter, in that it only entails planning a course, or series of courses, of a predetermined duration followed by employment in the relevant department. The difficulty arises in meeting the increasing demand for specialists in a particular subject, equipment, or operation, which is a part of a specialized branch of the profession, and at the same time provide for a full Service career.

It may be argued that this, too, is only a matter of courses and time, but bearing in mind the parallel need for overall training as professional officers, it would be only a partial truth. Let us take for example a pilot who has already been trained up to 'wings' standard on jet training aircraft and has been posted to a fighter or bomber squadron. During the early part of his career he is employed on normal squadron duties, such as high altitude interception, close support, navigational or bombing exercises, and so on. Should he show special aptitude he may be selected for further specialist training as a test pilot, flying instructor, or weapons officer which, all will agree, are very specialized branches of flying. In civilian life, the test pilot and instructor might well continue in this specialized employment until retirement, but in the Royal Air Force this is not possible, unless of course the officer is of the short service category, when the problem of a career and wide experience would not exist. Likewise, certain bomber crews of the future may be required to specialize in atomic bombing attacks—it is unlikely that all bombers will perform this task—therefore, further specialization will be necessary. Thus, the problem regarding the aircrew specialist is how to ensure that his training is such that it will fit him for continuation in the profession after his active flying days are over.

With regard to an officer in the non-flying branches, the problem is not so difficult because the nature of his specialized duties is such that he can continue in that particular type of employment until retirement. Hence it would appear that the problem can legitimately be broken down into two distinct parts, namely:—

(a) Bearing in mind that specialization is necessary not only in maintenance but in usage of modern weapons, how can we ensure that officers are fully trained both in specialist and general duties to a standard necessary to hold high office?

(b) How can we meet the need for a narrow specialization within the wider specialization, particularly in relation to (i) the permanent officer; (ii) the short service officer?

Our training organization is vast, it is efficient and flexible, but it cannot be changed overnight. To introduce new methods and techniques will take time.

As Epictetus once said : " No great thing is created suddenly, any more than a bunch of grapes or a fig. If you tell me that you desire a fig, I answer that there must be time. Let it first blossom, then bear fruit, then ripen."

The problem is, perhaps, somewhat difficult but by no means unsurmountable; given time, the aim can be achieved.

SOME THOUGHTS AND SUGGESTIONS

Problem (a). It is fundamental that an officer of the Royal Air Force, irrespective of branch, should possess knowledge of aircraft and have had air experience in some form or another by the time he reaches the rank of flight lieutenant. The earlier in his career that this aim is achieved the better, not only for the officer but for the Service in particular. While many of us would like to see all officers trained as aircrew, it is of course impracticable. Nevertheless, it is perhaps true to say that the spirit of romance and adventure is still inherent in the average Britisher and by facilitating an association with aircraft, both on the ground and in the air, a greater interest and sense of participation in the wider field of R.A.F. duties is created. To this end our training organization should endeavour to acquaint the young officer of every branch with aircraft from the outset of his career, thus providing a foundation of airmindedness as a basis of future training.

However great the need for specialization may be in the future, it is essential that the career officer—irrespective of branch—is trained and eventually experienced in the broad field of General Duties. To achieve this aim it is necessary to plan his career in such a manner that initial training covers a detailed study of his specialist subject and, at the same time, the rudiments of General Duties. It is axiomatic that officer training goes hand in hand with these two subjects.

Having passed from initial training to active duties, the periods of employment in any one appointment should be limited in the manner of current practice. By this means a wider experience is gained than would be by remaining in a set appointment for prolonged periods of time. Wherever possible all officers should take their share of general duties, even when employed in a specialist appointment, and it is seldom that this is not possible. Their early training must teach them to be first an officer rather than a specialist, for it is unlikely that this fundamental principle which has stood the test of time will cease to apply in the atomic age. The adoption of such a policy must ultimately produce both the specialist and the officer of wide experience in one and the same person. Albeit, the training, which is continuous over a period of years, must be progressive and so designed as to give the required experience at various levels.

It is reasonable to expect that the narrow field of specialization, be it in operational tactics, technical equipments, or use of weapons, will fall within the period of holding flying officer, flight lieutenant, and squadron leader rank. Therefore it may be assumed that a certain amount of G.D. experience will be lost during the period of training and study, but it should not be sufficient to have any adverse effect upon the G.D. capabilities of the officer at a later stage in his career. However, to ensure that an officer is given experience which eventually leads to wide experience, and, at the same time, is available as a specialist, it is suggested that his career is so planned that in his initial training as an officer he is given G.D. training simultaneously with that of his specialization. During service in the rank of pilot officer, flying officer, and flight lieutenant, his primary function should be specialist duties but partaking of General Duties according to rank. He should be given a junior

course in administration and consolidated by filling appointments of squadron adjutant and flight commander. Courses in further specialization, e.g., fighter leader, special forms of navigation, or on a special equipment or weapon, will normally fall within this period. Promotion examinations—flying officer to flight lieutenant, and flight lieutenant to squadron leader—should relate only to the officer's specialist subject. On promotion to squadron leader, the officer remains a specialist and would still be eligible for further training as such, but his responsibilities would be widened in the executive field and thus his experience is widened. The next step, that of promotion to wing commander, is perhaps the most important in the career of an officer who is destined for high office. It is in this rank that he is most likely to gain experience of command and the many tasks that go with it; he will in all probability experience a staff appointment, an executive specialist appointment, and may range from wing commander (flying) to station administrative officer or station commander. Nevertheless, by virtue of his rank, his responsibilities will be of an executive nature.

It follows that if the officer is to deal with the many problems he will meet, additional to his specialist job, in an efficient and proper manner, he must have reached a given standard of proficiency. With the present system of promotion examinations which, after all, is a part of our training, it is possible for a young flight lieutenant to qualify for both promotion and Staff College, then to rest on his laurels and eventually when promoted to find himself out of touch with current practice. This, of course, is not a general rule but it can, and does, happen. Bearing in mind the suggestion that up to the rank of squadron leader promotion examinations will have been only in the subject of the officer's specialization, it is reasonable to assume that the subject will have been covered in greater detail than it is under the present system, and that the officer will have reached a high standard of proficiency. If this is so, the problem of wide specialization should be adequately covered, thus permitting time for concentration on the more general subjects which are the basis of General Duties. It is suggested, therefore, that a third examination be taken to qualify for promotion and a Staff College course.

This examination, by covering the wider field of administration, organization, and general Service knowledge, would ensure that every wing commander is qualified both in specialist and general duties. This qualification, coupled with a reasonable period of experience in various appointments in the rank of wing commander, should ultimately produce a senior officer at group captain level who may legitimately bear the title of G.D.

It may be argued that an examination in the rank of squadron leader is unnecessary in that he should already be a qualified officer, but such an argument bears no relation to the aim, or to facts, for wide experience cannot be gained in a period of a few years. One has only to analyse the present officer situation to realize the truth of such a statement. Furthermore, not only the complexity of modern weapons but the complexity of administration and organization of today, is such that a more detailed study and concentration is needed to attain a high standard of efficiency than in the past.

Yet another argument may be that it would not fit in the officer's planned career, but here again there is really no argument—it is simply a matter of adjustment to meet the requirement. Certain changes may be necessary, but that is so in all things—progress itself is change. There can be little doubt that the most valuable experience fitting an officer for high office is gained in the ranks of squadron leader

and wing commander, therefore it is suggested that the career of all officers should be based on a system wherein, after initial training, an officer spends a comparatively short period in the rank of pilot officer. The period in each subsequent rank should increase progressively until the rank of wing commander, after which the periods should decrease, thus giving a balanced career, an incentive, and, in conjunction with the training plan, the facility to meet the aim.

While it is true that in practice the actual title of an officer's branch should have no effect upon the efficiency of an officer, it is also true to say that the present title of General Duties borne by aircrew is the cause of much dissension amongst officers. Flying today is very much the job of a specialist and it should, therefore, be treated the same as any other specialization in the Royal Air Force. To meet the requirements of a modern air force, all officers should be both specialists and capable of executing general duties according to their rank. It is suggested that renaming the present G.D. Branch in the form of a specialized branch, e.g. 'Flying', and annotating each officer according to his specialization, i.e. (P), (N), (S), as in other branches, would go a long way towards clearing much of the misunderstanding that exists today. By treating all officers as specialists up to, and including, the rank of wing commander, and thereafter placing all on a common list as G.D. officers, duly annotated according to specialization, it would be possible to make full use of all officers in the roll of specialists and general duties, and at the same time give the same opportunity to all of completing a full career. It would avoid a variation in promotion times and retiring ages, give equal incentive, and provide for at least 20 years' employment in specialist duties.

The foregoing thoughts and suggestions might, perhaps, be more readily understood if illustrated in diagrammatic form. They may, however, be summarized as 'a suggested officer career training plan', providing for:—

(a) A career in the Royal Air Force covering 40 years of service from the age of 20.

(b) An average length of service in each rank, as follows: pilot officer, 1 year; flying officer, 3 years; flight lieutenant, 5 years; squadron leader, 6 years; wing commander, 8 years; group captain, 4 years; air commodore, 3 years; air vice marshal and above, 2-3 years.

(c) A promotion zone of four years, being two either side of the average promotion times from the rank of flight lieutenant to air commodore. A squadron leader who would normally be promoted to wing commander rank at, say, the age of 35 would be eligible for promotion at 33 and up to 37 years of age.

(d) All officers being trained primarily as specialists and employed as such, up to and including the rank of wing commander. All officers of group captain rank and above to be categorized as General Duties.

(e) Promotion examinations to be taken in the rank of flying officer and flight lieutenant on their particular specialist subject only.

(f) Promotion and Staff College qualifying examinations on General Duties only to be taken whilst holding the rank of squadron leader.

(g) Periods of specialist training, i.e. junior and senior specialist courses in the ranks of flying officer, flight lieutenant, and/or squadron leader (junior administrative courses to be taken in conjunction with the foregoing).

(h) Courses of training in General Duties, i.e. senior administrative course, Staff College, I.D.C., and special courses of a general duties nature to be taken whilst serving in the ranks of squadron leader, wing commander, group captain, and/or air commodore.

Note.—The plan provides for a wing commander to be employed on General Duties whilst within the promotion zone, but he would retain the status of a specialist until promoted.

Heretical, perhaps, nevertheless change is inevitable in a changing world.

Problem (b). The exact requirements for a narrow specialization within specialized fields cannot always be predicted; it will depend to a great extent upon the rate of development of new weapons, new techniques, and upon the form they take. An example of this requirement can be found in the development of guided missiles and atomic weapons. It may well be that in the employment of these it will be necessary to use a team of specialists, such as electronic engineers, physicists, chemists, mechanical and radio engineers, all of which fall within a wider specialized branch of the Service.

It is unlikely that the G.D. officer as we now know him would be called upon to specialize in the maintenance of such weapons, yet on the other hand the operational use of them will certainly call for specialization. In navigation, the air routes and distances now flown call for specialist knowledge of the subject.

Turning to the first part of our problem, namely the permanent officer, it is suggested that by following the methods outlined under problem (a), the aim will ultimately be achieved. For example, in the rank of flying officer a junior specialist course of training is provided for and in the case of the aircrew officer, this can be utilized by a course at the R.A.F. Flying College, School of Navigation, or R.A.F. Technical College, as may be applicable. Likewise, in the rank of flight lieutenant, the senior specialist course would be treated in a similar manner, i.e. further progressive specialization.

With regard to employment after cessation of active flying duties at, say, the age of 40, and in the rank of wing commander, the officer would follow the suggested career as a G.D. officer until normal retiring age appropriate to the rank attained.

The second part of the problem can be ignored in so far as the requirement for wide experience is concerned. It is obvious that in the course of a short service commission the officer cannot possibly gain wide experience; therefore, the aim should be to make full use of him in a specialist role while on the active list, and so provide for a reserve of specialists who can be kept up to date during their periods of reserve training. Here, too, the aim will be achieved in respect of both flying and non-flying branches by following the same principles as outlined above.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The writing of this essay has led the author through many avenues of exploration in an endeavour to resolve the problem, yet it may be that only the surface has been disturbed. Always one comes back to a point of realization that we can no longer confine specialization or General Duties to any one branch; both are relevant to the Royal Air Force as a whole.

To summarize is perhaps best done by tabulating definite conclusions drawn from the foregoing discussion:—

(a) The activities of a modern air force are so varied and extensive that specialization in all its branches is essential.

(b) Flying, although still the primary function of an air force, is now a highly specialized branch of the Service and should be considered as such in common with all other branches.

(c) The old concept of a General Duties officer is entirely out of date and in the interest of the Royal Air Force must be replaced by a more realistic conception appropriate to the circumstances of today and the future.

(d) The modern junior air force officer is both specialist and G.D. to a degree commensurate with his rank.

(e) The need for wide knowledge and experience to be the qualification of a senior air force officer remains, and always will, an essential requirement.

(f) This qualification can only be gained by a varied experience over a considerable number of years and is, therefore, only to be found under normal circumstances, in the Regular career officer of mature age.

(g) To meet the aim it is necessary that initial training in both specialist and G.D. subjects should go on simultaneously up to the point of the officer being commissioned, thereafter during the period of service in the rank of pilot officer, flying officer, and flight lieutenant, the emphasis should be on specialization. General Duties should be performed according to rank, but must be secondary to the officer's specialist job. Experience will come with the passing of time.

(h) The short service officer, irrespective of branch, must be trained and employed as a specialist, i.e. pilot, navigator, technical, equipment, or as may be required. We cannot afford to waste training time on subjects that will not be applied in service. It is far more economical to have a trained specialist than a 'jack of all trades'.

(i) That full use should be made of the facilities available in industry, colleges, and universities for specialist training.

Finally, the ultimate answer to the problem rests upon the calibre of each individual officer. Whatever system of officers' training may be introduced, or however efficient it may be, the results obtained will depend upon the quality of the student. To specialize needs specialist training and detailed study; to acquire knowledge and experience of general duties does not necessarily require a special course of training, but rather it calls for a personal endeavour on the part of an officer in reading and absorbing the many books and official publications relevant to the subject and by putting into practice the instructions and principles contained therein.

It is becoming increasingly evident that in a modern air force all those serving must act more than ever before as a team, each and every one pulling his weight, doing his, or her, own particular specialist job, but all working to a common aim and all sharing the burden of General Duties. Thus, in the course of time all senior officers will be both specialist and General Duties officers of wide experience.

An ideal, but not impossible to attain.

THE MILITARY MUSEUM—ITS SPECIAL PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

By LIEUT.-COLONEL H. L. BOULTBEE

IN the correspondence columns of this issue of the JOURNAL there appears a letter signed by General Sir Gerald Templer, giving news of the formation of an Army Museums Ogilby Trust. It is thought that an article on the whole problem of army museums would be of interest to readers of that letter.

The *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* defines a museum as "a building used for the storage of and exhibition of objects illustrative of antiquities, natural history, fine and applied arts." The definition is accurate only as far as it goes and misleading in that it misses so much of the true purpose and role of a museum; its entity as an institution stretching far beyond the limitations of a building or group of buildings; its responsibility for the collection, classification, and preservation of material; and other essential functions in research and education. Each museum and type of museum will have its own special problems, but fundamentally their purpose remains the same. What is important is not the difference of interpretation, technique, or emphasis given to any particular function, but that before anything else the particular aim or function of a museum should be defined and that every effort of a museum should be directed to a definite purpose. It is perhaps in the world of the military museum that the lack of any definite aim or purpose is most felt.

Collections have grown up haphazardly, and specimens of little or no historical or military value picked up at random have been jealously preserved like the tourist relics of the last century—the bugbear of so many collections—and fill invaluable space in our already overcrowded museums. If for no other reason, it is vital to the director or curator of the military museum that he define the purpose and policy of his own museum, while keeping in his mind the broader purpose of the military museum in general and its special responsibilities to the soldier and student of military history as well as to the general public.

In general, these responsibilities include the collection and conservation of materials for research; the setting up of exhibits to illustrate the growth, development, and changes in strategy and tactics; the evolution and changes in arms, accoutrements, and equipment; and the preservation and exhibition of other relics and objects of military and historical interest. Within the scope of these collections fall many objects of great aesthetic value: magnificent uniform and regalia; colours, banners, and guidons; badges, sabretaches, and shabraques; pictures, and prints. The military print has a recognized and honoured place in British and continental pictorial art, and the English school of water-colourists owes much to the contribution of the art masters of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and Royal Military College, Sandhurst. It is interesting to record that Paul Sandby was drawing master at the 'Shop'—as the R.M.A., Woolwich, was affectionately known—from 1768 to 1797, when he was succeeded by his son T. Sandby from 1797 to 1828; and that William Delamotte was landscape drawing master at Sandhurst from 1803 to 1843, when he was succeeded by his son Edward Delamotte, 1844 to 1870.

In these collections, unrivalled perhaps in the diversity of their appeal, are enshrined the arts and crafts of their times: the skill of the armourer and metal worker, the needleworker, the tailor, the leather worker, goldsmith and silversmith and potter, and so many others who with loving skill have fashioned these priceless

relics of a bygone age. Many superb collections of regimental silver, ceramics, and *objets d'art* serve to illustrate a saga of heroic achievement and sacrifice, discipline, and *esprit de corps*. Here and there, too, are relics of less happier times to paint a more sombre picture of the devastation and misery of war.

If, then, the purpose of the museum is the collection, preservation, and exhibition of associated objects for cultural and aesthetic purposes, the military museum has an important function in the life and educational system of the Army as a whole. With National Service and a National Army and the war potential of the entire nation involved, the military museum assumes a new and wider importance in its relationship to the nation.

ORGANIZATION

There are some seventy-eight regimental and corps museums. Each infantry regiment has its own museum situated in its regimental depot. Corps are represented by small museums at the corps headquarters. The Royal Artillery is represented by the Royal Artillery Institution at Woolwich with another museum at the Headquarters of the Training Brigade at Oswestry. There are a number of Territorial Association museums including the Inns of Court Museum, the London Scottish Museum, and the 470th Regiment R.A., T.A., Museum.

The Household Cavalry have a museum of their own, but other cavalry regiments, with no permanent homes of their own, are represented in the Cavalry Museum, now part of the new military museum at the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst. This museum was established in 1950 for the purpose of preserving such objects of interest in connection with the Army as a whole which do not fall readily within the scope of existing establishments, such as regimental museums and other big Service museums—the Tower of London, Imperial War Museum, Royal United Service Museum, and Scottish United Services Museum. Apart from the regimental museums, the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst Museum is the only purely army museum in Great Britain. In addition to British cavalry, the museum has a special responsibility for the old Indian Army, the Irish regiments disbanded in 1922, the old Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, the Military Seminary—as it was called—at Addiscombe for cadets entering the service of the Honourable East India Company, and the old Royal Military College, Sandhurst. At the request of the War Office, the museum later accepted responsibility for collecting and preserving material for the Colonial forces, but has no responsibility at present for showing this material.

A museum society has recently been formed, the objects of which are to encourage the officer cadet to take an active interest in the museum and the study of military history, military antiques, and research. The programme of the society includes the preparation and reading of papers by cadets, demonstrations, lectures, film shows, and visits to other museums. Every effort is being made to stimulate interest in museum practice and modern methods of conservation and display. It is hoped that the effects may be far reaching in the whole field of regimental and corps museums.

In addition to these purely military museums, there are numerous other museums which preserve and exhibit material of either special or general interest. The Armouries of the Tower of London preserve and exhibit arms, armour, and uniform, British and foreign. The Armouries are administered by the Ministry of Works, who make provision for their expenses in the Annual Estimate. The Imperial War Museum, with its relics of the two World Wars, is administered by the Ministry of Works. It is housed in a building originally part of the old Bethlehem Royal Hospital, adapted for museum purposes in 1936. It was approved by the War

Cabinet in 1917 and established by Act of Parliament in 1920. In 1939, its responsibilities were extended to cover the 1939-45 War.

The Royal United Service Museum is under the control of the Council of the Royal United Service Institution. It was founded by His Majesty King William IV on 25th June, 1831, and was then known as the Naval and Military Library and Museum. In 1860, the Institution was granted a Royal Charter and a grant in aid was made by the Government towards its upkeep. In 1895, the Museum was transferred to its present building, the Banqueting House of old Whitehall Palace. This historic building was designed by Inigo Jones after the old palace had been destroyed by fire in 1619.

The Scottish United Services Museum, in Edinburgh Castle, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Works, who are advised by a committee consisting of representatives from all the three Services and the Royal Scottish Museum.

The military section of the Castle Museum in York has a special responsibility for the Yorkshire Regiments. The future policy of the museum is to hand over most of the material associated with the Regular regiments of the county to the regimental museums of these regiments, and to extend the responsibilities of the museum to Yeomanry and Volunteer regiments.

The War Office Military Museums Co-ordinating Committee is a committee appointed by the War Office. It meets annually and deals with all matters affecting military museums as a whole and has a special responsibility for the regimental museum. The Military Museums Federation was established in February, 1953, and joined the Museums Association as an Institutional Member. The constitution of the Federation is embodied in that of the War Office Co-ordinating Committee. The permanent chairman of the Committee is the Director of Weapons and Development, War Office, who is *ex officio* President of the Federation. Represented on the Committee by invitation of the War Office are the Tower of London, Royal United Service Institution, Scottish United Services Museum, the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst Museum, Society for Army Historical Research, the Royal Artillery Association, and the Castle Museum, York.

The creation of this Federation is an attempt to remedy some of the many defects and shortcomings so deeply ingrained in the system as a whole. Its objects are to promote closer association amongst members of the Federation, to encourage members to join regional museum federations, and to promote closer contacts between military museums and local cultural organizations. By joining the Museums Association as an Institutional Member the Federation hopes to bring its smaller museums within the orbit of the wider museum world and put each of its members within touch of modern museum techniques and practice.

The Society for Army Historical Research was established in 1921 "with the object of gathering and making known, as well as aiding research into the records of army and regimental history, military antiquities, uniforms, dress and equipment, old military customs and traditions, and the evolution of the art of war." It publishes a quarterly journal with a museum supplement.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

The earliest regimental museums were established soon after the first world war, but received little official support. The movement expanded rapidly during the twenties and early thirties. The earliest of these museums were purely private ventures, usually in a room of the officers' mess intended for the display of relics which could not suitably be displayed in the mess itself. First official recognition appears to have been given in 1936, when the Society for Army Historical Research

formed a museum committee, and, later, provision was made for a free issue of showcases and museum equipment in the Barracks Synopsis, 1938. The first curators were officers on depot staffs and later retired officers, or retired officers re-appointed as administrative officers at depots.

The first problem which faces the regimental museum is its position in the regimental depot, almost always in old barrack accommodation entirely unsuited to museum purposes. The Barrack Schedule of Equipment provides for a small number of showcases of simple design made under War Department contract. The results are not always successful. Any other showcases or special lighting would have to be provided from regimental or private funds. Unhappily, the museum is also handicapped by the quality and range of its interior decoration which again is restricted to a standard range of colours over which the curator has little or no control. In many cases, the museums are unheated and badly ventilated and damage is caused by damp, draughts, and unrestricted changes in relative humidity.

The curator himself, nearly always a serving or retired officer of the regiment, is usually handicapped by lack of technical knowledge and experience. As he is often appointed when serving at the depot for a short tour of service, there is little or no continuity. The attendant is usually an old soldier serving at the depot with no special qualifications or knowledge of simple museum techniques, although if of the right type and well chosen he can become a useful handyman in the museum.

In spite of these handicaps much has been achieved, and it is only fitting to record that there are some very good and well organized regimental museums.

The policy of the museum is invested in the commanding officer of the depot and sometimes a committee of officers, the president of which would be the colonel of the regiment. This committee does to some extent ensure a continuity of policy and, even if—as is indeed the case with many museum committees—unversed in museum lore, it will ensure that the history and traditions of the regiment are preserved, and will readily give an enthusiastic curator all the support he requires.

Even if the regimental museum is well placed to fulfil its purpose to the regiment or army as a whole, its position in a barracks often remote from a town prevents it from fulfilling its wider responsibility to the general public. Entry to the barracks is generally restricted and the museum often has no regular hours of opening. This rôle of the regimental museum should receive careful consideration: it has in itself a unique opportunity of showing and interpreting the traditions and way of life of the Army and, in particular, that of the county regiment to the county to which it belongs. The gateway to the barracks, flanked by its traditional guardroom and sentry, is forbidding to the uninitiated and there is seldom any sign to welcome or direct the visitor. It is important that these museums should be opened to the public at regular hours and that notices should be published regularly in the local press.

In many cases, the curator himself has hardly any contact with local cultural organizations or county and municipal museums. These local museums, with their advanced museum techniques, equipment, and trained staffs, could be of the greatest assistance to the regimental museums and would be willing and glad to help. They often hold and receive material of military and historical importance which they would be glad to pass on to their opposite number on the military side, and would in their turn welcome the advice and guidance of the military curator on subjects outside their own experience. There is certainly ample scope for this give and take. One of the principal objects of the Military Federation is to break down the barriers which prevent closer co-operation between both types of museums by encouraging members to join their local area federation.

Difficulties of presentation are common in some degree to all military collections. Haphazard display is too often the rule. This may be due in some measure to the intrinsic beauty and rich colouring of so many exhibits. They are displayed for effect only, without other purpose or meaning. This leads to the piling up of exhibits and the almost universal fault of overcrowding—due again to lack of both exhibition and storage space. But while we can make these excuses—pertinent as they are—much of the fault still lies with the lack of any clear-cut aim or policy in the museums, and the mental attitude of those responsible for them which is as outmoded as the museums themselves. The systematic display introduced in the military section of the Castle Museum at York is a refreshing and notable exception to these strictures, and an example of how systematic display can be successfully attempted with even limited material. The theme is always there—even in the smallest collection—and it is for the curator to find this theme from the rich pattern of his own regimental traditions and history and so discipline himself to it, section by section, until the whole is achieved. There is the same element of composition in the display as there is in a great picture which first arrests and then induces the spirit of wonderment. For the regimental museum, the main pattern must be the life and history of the regiment, but within this pattern lie the stories of famous battles and great commanders, of individual achievement, sacrifice and heroism, of change and evolution of uniform, arms, and equipment, and the story of the life of the soldier—officer and man—in every corner of this great Empire and Commonwealth.

One theme of great potential interest lies almost completely neglected and disregarded in our regimental museums. It is the origin, meaning, and the symbolism which survive in so many military customs. "Some of our simplest acts, acts performed without a thought of their origin, have their beginnings far back in history. We shake hands on greeting a friend to show we carry nothing with which to do him harm. We raise our hats to a lady just as a knight in armour raised his vizor as a token of respect. We still retain two buttons at the back of a dress tail coat to support the sword-belt we used to wear, and so on, and no doubt many modern usages will be similarly modified and survive to posterity."¹ The successful presentation of so much diverse material demands a fine discrimination and sense of proportion, with a clear object and well-formulated policy and plan.

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS TO THESE PROBLEMS

Some remedies for these weaknesses in our military museums can be suggested. All improvements must depend primarily on a higher standard of curatorial training. Courses might be arranged either with the co-operation of the big national Service museums, or this could become the responsibility of a national army museum when formed and where a well-trained museum staff would be available for the purpose. Professional membership should be encouraged and provision made for trainee vacancies for attachment of not less than six months' duration. Any lesser period should generally be discouraged if the student is to receive full benefit from the attachment and at the same time 'work his passage' on the museum staff.

Short technical courses might also be arranged covering the care and handling of material. Advantage might well be taken of the scheme by which the soldier can attend a course up to a maximum of twenty-eight days in his last six months of service. This course is designed to help him on his return to civilian life. After discharge, it might be possible to continue this training under courses arranged by

¹ *Military Origins*. By Brigadier C. T. Tones, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.

the Ministry of Labour and National Service, during which time he would receive a subsistence allowance. As the soldier would be paid either by the Army or the Ministry there would be no cost to the museum; he would receive a sound training as an attendant-craftsman, and at the same time he could be usefully employed on many of the techniques in which he would be trained.

If not the ideal solution, much could be done to improve the museum accommodation in old barracks. Provision for museum accommodation is now included in the plans of new depots and, since museums are included in the Barrack Synopsis, reasonable alterations of 'misappropriated' accommodation can be carried out at the expense of army funds. Methods of adapting existing accommodation should be studied, and advice sought from qualified architects who have made a special study of modern museum methods and requirements and from directors of museums where so much outstanding work in this direction has already been accomplished. Reading museum is an outstanding and brilliant example of how an ugly and unsuitable building can be converted to modern museum practice. Approved lists of experts on this and other museum problems who would be willing and qualified to help should be prepared and full use made of their services. Some expense would be involved, but this is inevitable if any improvement is to be effected and such a purpose may well be considered as ample justification for the comparatively small cost involved.

The importance of the Military Federation in bringing the regimental museum in touch with the greater museum world has been stressed. By joining area federations contacts are made and the military museum is brought into close contact, not only with other museums in the area but also with many other cultural organizations. Much still remains to be done before all regimental museums are brought into the Federation and very few indeed are members of their area federations. Attendance by curators at the annual conferences of the Museums Association should be encouraged, and it is in this way that they can be brought into contact with the stimulus of new and up-to-date methods and ideas.

Public interest in the regimental museum should be encouraged by press notices and articles. Museums should be opened at regular times and visitors welcomed. This could be done by notices in the local press as well as by suitable notices outside and at the entry to barracks. A close touch should be maintained with local county and municipal museums and frequent visits exchanged.

Some scheme for the pooling of resources and centralization of certain types of museum services might be devised. The services of a labellist on the staff of a central army museum might be made available to regimental museums. Advice on the care and conservation of pictures and prints could be made available in the same way and perhaps the services of qualified restorers. A similar service is carried out by the Office of Works who maintain a regular system of inspection and cleaning for all pictures owned by the Ministry on loan to outside institutions.

Better use of the Museum Supplement of the *Journal of the Society for Army Historical Research* might be made by the publication of approved methods and techniques in the care and preservation of material, methods of display, classification, and recording and research. The Supplement might, perhaps, be enlarged and thus give emphasis to methods and techniques rather than, as at present, to collectors' notes and historical details which are clearly within the province of the *Journal* itself.

Such then are the problems and some attempt at their solution. The challenge is there and also the reward, and we cannot pass them by.

THE INTERNATIONAL SITUATION¹

By A. K. CHESTERTON, M.C.

EUROPE

THE French National Assembly, voting on the Western Union Defence proposals agreed at the Nine-Powers Conference, performed the remarkable feats of rejecting them at the end of one week and accepting them at the beginning of the next. What influences were at work over the week-end have not been divulged, but it is unlikely that the British Foreign Secretary's threat to withdraw the offer of keeping four divisions of our troops and an important section of our tactical air force on the Continent until the end of the century was a decisive factor in securing the necessary votes and abstentions from voting needed for ratification. M. Mendès-France has still to secure the assent of the Council of the Republic before the participation of France in the Defence Community—upon which the Community's existence depends—becomes possible, and it would be a rash man who ventured to predict the Council's attitude. Probably, however, the military integration of Europe in one form or another will at least take place on paper: what reality it will possess, and the question of whether it will solve more problems than it creates, are fruitful fields for speculation.

Some idea of the difficulties which lie ahead may be gained by watching the preliminary manoeuvres for position within the proposed set-up. The French Prime Minister failed to secure the agreement of the London Conference to a plan for the unified control of the armaments of the continental partners of the Community. All that he secured was a co-ordinating authority to be established in London for certain tasks of planning and supervision. Not content with this, and refusing to admit defeat, M. Mendès-France had no sooner secured his majority in the French Assembly than he re-opened the subject with the advocacy of an even more sweeping plan for a complete arms pool: it was even given the name "Arms Community." It provided for the bringing into operation in 1957 of a central authority with "defined and far-reaching powers to control the standardization of arms and their production in common." It would take as its model the Coal and Steel Community, "consisting of a fully supranational committee whose members would have no links with their countries." The plan does not, as did the one rejected in London, confine participation to continental countries, but aspires to embrace Britain as well.

WESTERN GERMANY'S ATTITUDE

Neither the British nor the German response was favourable. The Germans objected to the principle that they should forego all sovereignty over their own armaments. Dr. Adenauer had agreed that the Federal Republic should not produce atomic, chemical, and biological weapons, or—without the specific agreement of the Council of the Western European Union—long-range or guided missiles, 'influence' mines, warships above a certain size, and strategic bombers. But that, declared Bonn, was to be the limit of the prohibitions. Germany would demand her right, set forth in the treaties, to produce all other armaments. According to Professor Erhard, the Federal Minister of Economics, this did not imply that she would adopt a negative attitude towards questions of arms standardization and the principle of an international "division of labour." *The Times* correspondent at Bonn interprets the German view in these terms:

¹ As deduced from reports up to 24th January.

Armour plate for heavy tanks, for instance, might be made in Germany, while other parts of the tanks might be made in France or Belgium; similarly, some types of guns might be made only in France, or their barrels might be made in France and their cartridges elsewhere. So far as an economic justification can be found for such arrangements, the Germans might agree to them.

Nothing is said about military justification. If in the event of a war one of the countries of the alliance opted for neutrality, or was rapidly overrun, the country able to produce only gun carriages might feel a little foolish without the guns to go with them. But fervent internationalists do not stop to worry about a little thing like that.

Before the matter is settled, if ever it is settled, there will be continuous conferences—they have already begun—and continual friction. The European Union, to which all these functional 'integrations' are leading, would indeed have to be a robust, enduring body to accommodate all the stresses and strains and crises which have been so conspicuous a feature of the last few years. So far from diminishing them it would vastly increase and intensify their incidence. The reason is simple. Nations achieve their coherence through organic growth, whereas there is nothing organic in these proposed international structures. They are purely artificial. No institution or arrangement which denies basic facts can succeed. When, for instance, M. Mendès-France and Dr. Adenauer issued a statement affirming that full Franco-German agreement on the Saar had been reached, it was perhaps permissible to think that they were being a little optimistic. No agreement which leaves out of account the fact that the Saarland is physically, emotionally, and ethnologically an integral part of Germany can long survive as a contrary fiction.

CHANGE IN BRITISH OUTLOOK

What of the British attitude to the proposed Arms Community? Despite the initial recoil to the suggestion of the United Kingdom's membership, were such an authority to be set up no doubt a formula would be devised to procure her association with it, perhaps on the lines of her association with the Coal and Steel Community. Those who fashion these compromises do so in the belief that association will blossom into full participation. This trend of thought has been greatly strengthened by the almost complete absence of protest when the British Government promised to underwrite European Union to the extent of four armoured divisions and a part of our tactical air force. This, perhaps, is a suitable context in which to relate that Britain's traditional insular policy—in the eyes of many serious-minded students of affairs still a valid policy as long as it is not pushed too far—has, as a result of the British guarantee and the calm acceptance of it by the British people, suffered something like a major defeat. The British European Federalists, comprising Parliamentarians of all parties, have been swift to extend the range and increase the tempo of their advance, and they are very candid about why they do so. Explaining the change of tactics, the official journal of the United Europe Movement wrote:—

"The extent to which British public opinion was ready for the abandonment of its isolationism, and the commitment of its armed forces to the defence of Europe, as soon as the rejection of the E.D.C. by the French Assembly made a new policy possible, came as a surprise to the world."

Henceforward, there will be demands upon the British Government not only for direct British participation in functional communities, but for outright participation

in European Federal Union. There is no reason to suppose that the Government itself fails to read what is so generally presented to it as being the writing on the wall.

All this makes heavy the hearts of members of the insular school, who are all for continental alliances, but who look with deep distrust upon proposed federal 'integrations,' whether such schemes be in the fullest sense political or merely functional and preparatory. Advocates of traditional policy have at least this to be said for their case—that it has served our island needs for nearly a thousand years. That does not ensure that it will serve our needs tomorrow, but perhaps there is some justification for their belief that it offers stronger guarantees than does our possible political involvement in a structure that could so easily collapse at the first blast of the trumpet.

RUSSIA AND WESTERN UNION

It was clear from Sir Anthony Eden's broadcast on foreign affairs that the British Government attaches the greatest importance to the creation of a Western European Army. That the directing political body would be but a slender reed to stand up to the raging international storms is a thought which seems to occasion the Foreign Minister no anxiety. Only let the 'integration' take place, he says in effect, and the whole Western position will change from one of weakness to one of strength. It will even, he believes, make negotiations with the Russians about the unification of Germany easier and more fruitful. Sir Anthony must have good reason for that view: otherwise he would not have expressed it. Those of us who are ignorant of that reason can only wonder why the complete absorption of Western Germany within a Western Federation should be expected to predispose the Russians to throw in Eastern Germany for good measure. It would seem to us to make the problem even more intractable than it is already.

All such questions, perhaps, are academic. If history is any guide, the unification of Germany belongs to the order of problems for which there is no solution outside a general cataclysm.

THE FAR EAST

INDO-CHINA

It is perhaps a fair and accurate description of events in Southern Viet-Nam and Cambodia to say that since the truce arranged at the Geneva Conference they have passed from effective French sovereignty, and Cambodia from French protection, to undeclared but effective United States suzerainty. An American officer of high rank offers to the three Governments advice which has all the force of directives. While the battle of Dien Bien Phu was raging, President Eisenhower declared that a major aim of his country's policy was to secure for Japan a market in Indo-China, and although no very explicit reports of the present trading pattern are available, the probability is that this part of the programme is being duly carried out. Politically the picture is mainly one of the contrived dissolution of the former French Union into its constituent parts. By an agreement signed in Paris the economic and customs union has been ended and each country accorded the right to issue its own currency, levy its own customs, and control its own trade. France is to supply financial aid and in return receive certain economic advantages: otherwise the sun has set, or is rapidly setting, on the French Far Eastern system. Military power remains nominally in French hands, but negotiations are pending for its transfer and for the return home of the gallant French army which through eight heart-breaking years kept Communism from breaking into South-East Asia.

What next? If stability has indeed come to Indo-China—that is, if Communism has indeed reached the limit of its advance—then the French military withdrawal, whatever it may mean to France, has no special significance within the general strategic picture. But supposing, as seems probable, that Communism is only marking time until the French are safely out of the way? That the question is a pertinent one may be judged from the fact that the world's leading statesmen are flying to Bangkok to consider first what should be done should the contingency arise. It might have been wiser had such a meeting taken place before the French position had begun to be undermined by Western policy-makers, who acted on the assumption that Bao Dai was a more dependable bulwark against Communism than were the soldiers of France. Should the war be resumed, these soldiers of France will be greatly missed. Who will take their place? H-Bombers? The Bangkok conference is scarcely likely to consider that question, let alone supply the answer. What it will try to do, beyond doubt, is to give some shape to the South-East Asia Treaty Organization. But combined headquarter staffs are a poor substitute for troops.

FORMOSA

By the time the Bangkok conference assembles it may be that turbulent happenings in the Formosa Strait will have switched the attention of Western Foreign Ministers from the dangers of a further Red advance in Indo-China to the Formosan issue. It is typical of Communist technique, however, to cause a diversion, which is what, at the present time, the warlike menaces against the Chiang-held Tachen Islands may well be. Although President Mao-Tse-Tung is so deeply committed to gaining possession of Formosa that for him to disavow that object would mean an intolerable loss of face, it is exceedingly improbable that the Chinese will venture further at this stage than the inlying islands of the Tachen group. The capture of Yi Kiang Shan may even be the limit of the operations, for the present satisfying Chinese pride and serving as a token of bigger things to come—things which will not come as long as the American fleet is in the offing. There is no reason to suppose that a show-down with the United States is actually being sought, although it may serve American interests to act on that assumption, so as to possess a case for strengthening the control on Formosa.

Why is the Pekin Government making a present of that pretext to the United States Government? The answer cannot be given with any assurance that it is the right answer, but it might be no bad thing if the West resolutely refuses to have too much of its attention focused on Formosa. Its intelligence services should watch with the utmost care the long southern periphery of the Chinese Empire from Indo-China to the Burmese frontier, because it may be taken as axiomatic that the Communist advance in South-East Asia, so far from being ended, has hardly begun. If the negotiators at Bangkok, in addition to concerting their defensive plans, whatever they may be, aspire to make Mao and Chiang shake hands and be friends, then they will start upon the wildest goose-chase of their careers.

MALAYA

This year there is to be introduced into Malaya a large measure of self-government, with general elections based on the device, which so perplexed the Sudanese, of giving to candidates each his own distinctive symbol. Teams have been busy throughout the country explaining to Malaysians what it is all about, doubtless to prevent a repetition of the fiasco in the Sudan. They may succeed in helping the electors to relate symbols to candidates, but that is the most that can

be expected of them. Their pupils are scarcely likely to be taught how to recognize a deflationary policy when they see one, or how to thread a way through the intricate mazes of G.A.T.T., or to master any other complicated problem in this supersonic age of ours, but perhaps it is not an essential part of the political education of people deemed sufficiently advanced to govern themselves.

Meanwhile Australian troops are reported to be preparing to join their British comrades in Malaya. They will be a welcome reinforcement.

THE MIDDLE EAST AND MEDITERRANEAN

EGYPT AND THE SUDAN

In Egypt, our abandonment of our Suez bases continues apace. Our relations with that country, Sir Anthony Eden tells us, are in consequence much improved. Large numbers of British officials, including all the judges, finding the prospects for useful employment in the Sudan depressing, have resigned. The beneficent British rule comes to an end in an atmosphere of heartbreak. Until the decision about the Sudan's association with Egypt is made, there is likely to be nothing further of importance upon which to comment.

CYPRUS

The United Nations Assembly, to the surprise of most people, shelved the application of Greece for the status of Cyprus to be discussed. It is not accurate to describe this as a British victory, because the British case had been that the matter was one of domestic policy and therefore removed from the consideration of the United Nations. The decision clearly overrode the argument of *ultra vires*, because a body palpably cannot shelve discussion on a subject it considers it has no right to discuss.

However, in as far as the decision relieves Great Britain of the embarrassment of a United Nation's airing of the Greek complaint that its spurious claim for sovereignty over Cyprus has been rejected, that is patently all to the good. The remarkable last-minute change of view in the Assembly was caused by a reversal of United States policy, not—as is now generally admitted—because of any love of Britain, but because the Turks had some strong views on the subject.

MALTA

The impending change, one way or another, in the status of Malta has produced one delightful gem of humour. While the Nationalist Party advocates Dominion status, the Maltese Labour Party offers the people complete absorption by the United Kingdom, with Maltese representation at Westminster, but tells them that if the idea does not appeal to them it will work with equal zeal for their complete independence. A most accommodating Party it would seem.

CORRESPONDENCE

(Correspondence is invited on subjects which have been dealt with in the JOURNAL, or which are of general interest to the Services. Correspondents are requested to put their views as concisely as possible, but publication of letters will be dependent on the space available in each number of the JOURNAL—EDITOR.)

AIR POWER AND THE FUTURE OF WAR

To the Editor of the R.U.S.I. JOURNAL.

SIR,—I see from the August JOURNAL that during the discussion¹ on his most interesting and reassuring lecture *Air Power and the Future of War*, Marshal of the Royal Air Force Sir John Slessor makes the point that in the minor wars that he foresees we shall be up against the problem of our potential enemies being able to live and fight a great deal more toughly than we can, and, as he puts it, "live on a couple of grains of rice a day and not worry about all the necessities of life like Ensa shows, cigarettes, coca-cola, and dough-nuts". He goes on to say that as a result the soldiers have a great problem in training troops to fight and live tough.

In talking about 'we', Sir John Slessor perhaps again meant 'the West', but he seems to have had in mind people like the Chinese and North Koreans when referring to the Russians' proxies.

I feel that it is very often forgotten that the British Commonwealth, at any rate, possesses quite a number of soldiers who do not have to be trained to fight and live tough, because they do so naturally.

I have in mind particularly the soldiers of The King's African Rifles, because it is with them that my experience lies, but my remarks, I know, could apply equally well to others such as the Gurkhas, West Africans, and Fijians.

The Central and East African soldier likes his cinemas when he can get them, but as yet they are an infrequent treat which is far from becoming a necessity of life. The capital of Nyasaland hasn't even got a public cinema yet. He also likes a certain amount of comfort, but it may surprise some people to know that the conditions under which K.A.R. battalions live in operational stations in the jungle in Malaya, where they have waterproof tents, electric light, and beds, are considered to be luxurious compared to the living conditions prevailing in the permanent barracks in some of their home stations. The result of such a standard of comfort during their service and an even lower one as civilians is that the African soldier still remains largely impervious to the effects of lack of modern conveniences and is endowed with tremendous powers of endurance and simple tastes, which enable him to enjoy life to the full without artificial entertainment. A measure of their enjoyment of life is their irrepressible humour.

Some men going on long leave in Nyasaland think very little of walking 96 miles with their kit from the 'bus stop' to their front door, and while doing so exist on the most meagre of diets. Weekend leaves are often spent by others in cycling to their homes up to 50 miles away. In their villages, their requirements and comforts are simpler by far than those of the Chinese.

In Malaya, wounded men were known to walk for two days from their patrol bases with just one companion and a mess tin of rice. This was arranged, without hesitation and in full confidence that they could make it, by African warrant officers and non-commissioned officers, whereas British officers, unused to their high powers of endurance, tended to be horrified at the thought of it.

The African soldier does have many limitations in comparison to European troops but at the same time he can more than stand his ground when it comes to living and fighting toughly "on a couple of grains of rice a day". What is more, you can recruit a battalion of these chaps in a week.

¹ Page 356.

With material such as this, need the problem of matching our potential enemies' ability to live and fight toughly be such a problem? It seems to me that a fuller utilization of such troops in areas where they are better suited to climatic conditions than are British troops, and a closer alliance and mingling between them and British troops, say by putting one battalion of African troops into each British brigade east of Suez, would not only increase the ability of formations to match the powers of the other side to live and fight toughly, but would be of great assistance in training British troops to fight and live toughly. British officers and other ranks who serve in African battalions soon acquire the ability.

A policy of this sort would require many more battalions of the K.A.R. than exist at the moment. The recruits are readily available if only the money can be found. African colonial troops must be amongst the cheapest in the world to maintain, and, from Sir John Slessor's very forceful arguments, it would seem to be worth while to reduce expenditure on atom or hydrogen bombs to enable us to afford more of the type of material I have written about to drive Communism back behind its own frontiers and contain it there.

F. E. WHITE,
Major.

20th October, 1954.

4TH QUEEN'S OWN HUSSARS

SIR,—The Regimental History Committee of my Regiment would be very grateful to anyone who can let us know of any documents in their possession concerning the early days of the 4th Hussars.

We are particularly interested in filling in the gaps in the records of the early days. The title of the Regiment has been Princess Anne of Denmark's Dragoons, 4th Dragoons, 4th Light Dragoons, and 4th Queen's Own Hussars.

The Colonels of the Regiment, whose descendants may possess family papers relevant to the Regiment, were, up to 1881—John Berkeley (later Viscount Fitzharding); Thomas Maxwell; Algernon, Earl of Essex; Sir Richard Temple (later Lord Cobham); Major-General William Evans; Sir Robert Rich; Henry Seymour Conway; Major-General Benjamin Carpenter; General Lord Howard de Walden; General Sir Robert Sloper; General Lord Dorchester; Major-General Francis Hugonin; Lieutenant-General Lord Robert Somerset; Lieutenant-General Sir James Dalbiac; Lieutenant-General Sir George Scovell; Major-General Sir James Hope Grant; Lieutenant-General Lord de Ros; and General Lord George Paget.

If anyone should possess papers concerning the Regiment in the old days we would be most grateful if he will write to the author, Mr. D. Scott Daniell, c/o Jonathan Cape Limited, 30 Bedford Square, W.C.1.

J. SCOTT-COCKBURN,
Brigadier.

3rd November, 1954.

(Chairman, Regimental History Committee.)

ANTI-SUBMARINE OPERATIONS OFF THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA

SIR,—In his article *Anti-submarine Operations off the West Coast of Africa*,² "G.V." states that convoys sailing eastbound from Lagos could not be supplied with escorts.

He then says, "But, as always happens when certain things do not exist, the Royal Navy learns to 'make do without'".

I wonder if "G.V." would explain what he means. The Royal Navy does not seem to have to 'make do without' anything. The people who had to 'do without' were the Merchant Navy.

F. J. CAMMACK.

4th November, 1954.

² See JOURNAL for August, 1954, p. 443.

SIR,—The 'things' which did not exist were escorts. Therefore, the Royal Navy had to 'make do' without escorts and devise other ways of protecting this eastbound shipping; hence "independent sailings by diversified routes".

10th November, 1954.

"G.V."

NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS, 1939-45 WAR

SIR.—Of all the smaller naval engagements during the last war, two I feel are still unknown to most people, except for those who had some part in them.

The first was the very gallant action between H.M.S. *Peterel* and two Japanese coast defence ships off Hong Kong, and the second was the action between H.M.I.S. *Bengal* and the *Sakita Maru*. If any of your readers could supply me with reliable information I would be most grateful. I intend, if possible, to write a more complete account of these actions since, so far as I know, only the bald official handouts are in existence and nothing further has been written on them.

DESMOND WETTERN,

7th November, 1954.

Oxted Place, Oxted, Surrey.

A LOOK THROUGH A WINDOW AT WORLD WAR III

SIR,—I was fortunate enough to be able to look through a window with Field-Marshal Montgomery at the R.U.S.I. on 21st October.³ While doing so I saw, as I am sure did all who attended the lecture, not only the problems in the vista of the future but also solutions emerging in the foreground. The window was, in fact, opened wide.

Unfortunately, as I stood by the window someone came up behind me and pushed me through it. I survived the fall and learned later that a Communist had crept up behind me as I gazed intently at the view. I remembered then that a significant part of the problem was not to be seen through the window but only by looking over one's shoulder at the enemy within.

As question time was inevitably limited at the lecture, I wonder whether Field-Marshal Montgomery could be persuaded to tell us what he sees when he looks over his shoulder?

BRUCE ROBINSON,

8th November, 1954.

Group Captain.

SIR,—I had the good fortune to be able to attend the lecture entitled *A Look through a Window at World War III*. During this lecture it was stated that, in the lecturer's view, the battle at sea was passing more and more to the Air Forces. This was interpreted by at least one commentator in a national newspaper as forecasting the early eclipse of the Royal Navy. I believe that it is important that this view should be refuted and the following is offered as an explanation of the issues involved. It is not put forward in any sense of inter-Service rivalry or mistrust.

In arguing this matter to its logical conclusion it is necessary to start with certain premises.

First.—The only known way of moving masses of men and materials across an ocean is, to date, on the surface of the sea.

Second.—Seventy-five per cent. of the earth's surface is salt water.

Third.—The only reason for having a battle at sea must inevitably depend on the presence of a war or merchant ship on the surface of the sea.

The battle at sea may break out at any time during the whole war and at any place where salt water may be found. Of all those who take part in battles at sea, it is undoubtedly the sailor who knows most about both the battle ground and the aim of the

³ See JOURNAL for November, 1954, p. 507.

battle. In order to achieve success it is necessary for this sailor to be provided with the best possible weapons operated by fighting men who thoroughly understand their operation. One of these weapons is an aircraft, whether it be for striking the enemy or for reconnaissance. It is essential that these aircraft come under the operational control of the officer conducting the battle and that their crews are fully trained in the roles which they may be required to perform.

To clarify this issue an aircraft can be compared to the pin provided at a winkle tea. By itself it has no virtue, but without it, and a measure of skill in its operation, the object is unattainable.

From the above it is concluded that the control of the battle at sea must remain in the hands of a sailor who must be provided with all the necessary tools. By all means let us be vigilant to ensure that the sailor's planning is realistic and up to date and that on no account should it be possible to perpetuate anachronisms for the sake of either tradition or prestige. No attempt, however, should be made to supplant the sailor by an officer from another Service who cannot, of necessity, have so good a basic background. Only when the time comes for the sinews of war to be transported across the oceans otherwise than on the surface of the sea, will it be time to decide who then will accept the responsibility for their safety. If these sinews are to come by air, then let it be an airman, or, if it is a matter of tunnelling, perhaps an official from the National Coal Board. It is thought highly unlikely that any admiral will offer his services for the new task.

ROBERT AUBREY,

22nd November, 1954.

Commander, R.N.

FIELD-MARSHAL EARL ROBERTS

SIR,—A matter of no small significance seems to have escaped the notice of Lord Roberts's biographers.

This is that, in his two major wars, he won his victories against opponents who possessed technically superior weapons.

In the War of 1878-79, Ayub Khan's Afghan field artillery was armed with rifled breech-loading guns. With these he overwhelmed the Woolwich muzzle-loaders of the British Bombay Army at Maiwand. Roberts, however, with no better guns, snatched victory from defeat and, as Kipling said, "stormed the Bala Hissar and made the bold Afghan for to flee".

In 1899, the Boers outmatched our box magazine Lee Metfords with their Mauser charger-loaders; our very few wheeled and brass-jacketed Maxims with their Pom-Poms; our outdated 15-pounders with Nordenfeldt Q.F. field artillery; and our few crudely improvised 4.7s with most up to date Schneider-Canets of 155 mm. Here again, in seven weeks, Roberts turned the tide of defeat and received Cronje's surrender.

Even Wellesley had derived advantages from superior novel weapons, the Baker rifle and Lieutenant Henry Shrapnel's "spherical case shot", both of which helped to bewilder the French to the end.

L. V. S. BLACKER,

14th November, 1954.

Lieut.-Colonel.

BALACLAVA

SIR,—I trust I shall not be guilty of lese-majesty in wondering whether, at the recent fancy dress ball held by the Light Brigade, the Colonel-in-Chief of the Royal Scots Greys and The Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders reminded the Colonel-in-Chief of the 8th Hussars that her regiments took part in the less spectacular, but far more successful, part of the battle of Balaclava.

H. P. E. PEREIRA,

30th November, 1954.

Major.

SIR,—Much notice has been given recently to the Charge of the Light Brigade in the Crimea 100 years ago—one of the best-known episodes of the British Army. It was stated that their strength was 607 and that there were some 247 total casualties.

May I compare this with an instance of modern war?

On 1st July, 1916, at Beaumont Hamel on the first day of the great battle of the Somme, after two brigades had failed to take their objectives, the Newfoundland Regiment was ordered to attack.

Our strength was 25 officers and 776 other ranks, total 801. We had to attack over a crest line and down a slope. When the order was given the whole Regiment advanced at a walk. As we crossed the crest line the German machine guns opened fire, and as the companies converged on the gaps in our wire, which had to be crossed, they were mown down.

We lost 12 officers killed and 11 wounded; 246 other ranks killed and 442 wounded; a total of 711 out of 801. There were no prisoners.

There were other occasions when battalions suffered heavy losses in the 1914-18 War, but I have been unable to find any record of losses approaching these figures.

I think it is easier to charge on a horse than to attack on foot against machine gun fire.

A SURVIVOR.

8th December, 1954.

A CASE FOR ARMY DECENTRALIZATION

SIR,—As a result of many discussions with other officers, over a period of time, I wrote an article to express their views as well as my own and this eventually appeared under the above heading in the August JOURNAL⁴. I was glad to see the support given to this article by Colonel Grylls in the November number,⁵ though I doubt if his hope that this will be acted on will be fulfilled very quickly. We are very slow moving as a nation, though we always get there in the end.

I did not, however, understand the reference by Colonel Grylls to the heavy tank. I do not think that Colonel Grylls meant this remark about the heavy tank in the way in which I have read it, for we have often had discussions and agreement on these matters. Colonel Grylls is, of course, quite right when he says that we needed mobility for the advance into Germany, and by that time we had splendid cruiser tanks for this purpose in the Cromwell and Comet. But in the static phase before the advance, the Royal Armoured Corps would have given anything to have had a small number of heavy tanks to see off the German heavy tanks.

Actually, Field-Marshal Montgomery had pressed for a dual purpose tank in 1942, and when I left my command of the R.A.C. in 1943 to go to Russia, all pressure was relaxed on producing a proper heavy tank. We dropped our old and sound policy of two types of tank to which we have recently returned. The Centurion was built as the dual purpose machine and was a splendid tank, but it was neither one thing nor the other. It was then altered in certain ways and it is now a splendid cruiser tank and we have the Conqueror as our heavy tank. We would have had these two very fine tanks much sooner if we had not introduced the dual purpose idea.

G. LE Q. MARTEL,

Lieut.-General.

9th December, 1954.

⁴ Page 434.

⁵ Page 606.

FIRST IN THE FIELD⁶

SIR,—As a matter of historical fact, William Howard Russell had a predecessor as a special correspondent in the person of Henry Crabb Robinson.

Also in the employ of *The Times*, after a period of duty in Altona, Robinson was assigned to 'cover' the activities of Sir John Moore's expeditionary force in the Iberian peninsula.

Actually, he arrived on the scene at the height of the battle in which Moore was slain. But he was a witness, and fully described the scenes accompanying the British forces' evacuation; taking particular note of the careful way in which the mounted men shot their horses rather than let them fall into the hands of the French.

It was not a lengthy nor a particularly redoubtable assignment, but at least it permitted this earlier *Times* correspondent to claim the distinction of having been 'the first in the field'.

REGINALD HARGREAVES,

9th December, 1954.

Major (Retd.).

VALOUR WITHOUT TRUMPETS

SIR,—Major Hargreaves, in his excellent article on *Valour Without Trumpets*⁷ in your November, 1954, issue, writes of the disastrous convention signed between General Elphinstone and Mahomed Akbar on 1st January, 1842, "In the circumstances hardly any other course was open to him . . .", etc. There was undoubtedly another course open, and that was the occupation of the Bala Hissar. On the sombre Christmas Day, 1841, the gallant Major Pottinger rose from a sickbed and in the Council of War remonstrated with soldierly vigour and clarity of military appreciation against the degrading terms thrown at the British by the Afghan Sirdars. He produced letters from Jellalabad and Peshawar giving information of reinforcements on the way from India and urging the maintenance of resistance.

He urged two courses, one a fighting retreat down the passes after abandoning all baggage, the other the occupation of the strongly fortified Bala Hissar. Of that 'Council of War' (and how sarcastically he wrote when he called it by such a name), Pottinger wrote, "The Council unanimously decided that to remain in Cabul and to force a retreat were alike impracticable and that nothing remained but the endeavour to release the army by agreeing to the conditions offered by the enemy . . . Under these circumstances, as the Major-General coincided with the officers of the Council and refused to attempt occupying the Bala Hissar, and as the Second in Command declared that impracticable, I considered it my duty, notwithstanding my repugnance to and disapproval of the measure, to yield and attempt to carry out a negotiation". It is a matter of history that the advance began at 9 a.m. on 6th January, 1842; that it was not till late in the afternoon that the long camel baggage train following the main body had cleared the cantonments; and that meanwhile the rearguard, massed in a narrow space between rampart and canal, was exposed to a vicious Jezail fire poured into it by the Afghans, who abandoned temporarily the pleasure of arson and loot to kill the Feringhees. When the rearguard did move away in the twilight, an officer and 50 men were already dead in the snow, where they were perforce left to lie.

It seems that the decision to accept the terms was as unnecessary as lamentable in the event. Elphinstone had been selected for command, as he was considered by higher authority a suitable puppet in the hands of the civilian envoy, Macnaughten, and Burnes, the political officer at Cabul.

Very different was the way Lord Roberts handled the situation in 1879, when he held out in the Sherpur Cantonment until he defeated Mahomed Jan completely on 24th December, 1879.

F. A. L. de GRUCHY,

14th December, 1954.

Major (Retd.).

⁶ See JOURNAL for November, 1954, p. 537.

⁷ See JOURNAL for November, 1954, p. 559.

SIR,—I can add a postscript to the article *Valour Without Trumpets*, published in the November number of the JOURNAL.

On page 561, it is stated that "terms of ransom having been arranged", the families who had surrendered to the Afghan commander, Mahomed Akbar, were at last released. Shortly after the 1914-18 War, I gave over charge of the police of the Drug District, Central Provinces, India, to a young Superintendent, Mahomed Akram. He told me he was directly descended from Mahomed Akbar. He said that, after the surrender, the Amir had sent orders for the hostages to be 'liquidated'—how was not specified—but the British Government of India had offered Mahomed Akbar a *jagir* (grant of land) and a crore of rupees for their safe return. This had been accepted and the family still held the *jagir* in the Punjab.

21st January, 1955.

M. F. WREN,
Imperial Indian Police (Retd.).

EUROPE OR THE COMMONWEALTH? CONCENTRATION OR DISPERSAL?

SIR,—The time has come when the Government should take the peoples of the Commonwealth into its confidence and let them know along what path their future lies. This is a vital problem in view of the Conference of Dominion Premiers to be held at the end of January.

There are two issues involved. Firstly, in addition to our military commitments in Europe we have dug in further by a closer association with the European Coal and Steel Community. This means that our manpower, industries, and centres of population must remain concentrated in the British Isles, thereby providing an easy target with plenty of bullseyes for thermo-nuclear weapons of all kinds.

Field-Marshal Montgomery has told us that the opening phase of World War III will be a series of sudden, swift attacks by either guided missiles or rockets containing nuclear warheads. The nation that is fully prepared in peace, with a sound Civil Defence and Home Guard sufficiently strong and trained, will ride the storm and will win in the end. The nation not so prepared will lose at the very start as the home front will collapse. There is no way of stopping these attacks except by capturing the launching sites. How can this be done with the existing N.A.T.O. forces?

What arrangements are there for Home Defence? As far as the Home Guard is concerned its numbers are woefully weak, especially in the rural areas where it is most required. The numbers available are totally inadequate to deal with any sudden emergency. The Civil Defence strength is little better. I submit, therefore, that there should be some form of National Service injected into these organizations. Only in this way can we be adequately prepared at the start to withstand these initial shocks. It is futile to rely on volunteers; excellent as they be, they are not receiving the support from their fellow men and women.

The second issue is this. If our manpower, industries, and population are to remain concentrated in the British Isles, how can we provide for the development and peopling of the Commonwealth? The Big Brother Movement, Fairbridge Scheme, and so on, all excellent in every way, do not produce the answer. Money may be poured into a country, but only brains and hands can put it to proper use.

The present state of welfare and make-belief in the U.K. does not provide any incentive for people to emigrate. The Dominions are turning more and more to the Continent of Europe to obtain settlers. In course of time British stock will diminish; perhaps this does not matter so long as European standards of civilization are maintained.

Eight years ago, the British Chiefs of Staff warned the Country that for strategic reasons industry and population should be dispersed throughout the Commonwealth, especially to Australia and New Zealand where we now know that Communist pressure from the north is increasing hourly.

Which is it to be, Europe or the Commonwealth? We can no longer have a foot equally in both camps.

3rd January, 1955.

R. F. WRIGHT,
Lieut.-Colonel.

ARMY MUSEUMS OGILBY TRUST

SIR,—Great advances have been made in the last ten or twenty years in the formation, lay-out, and custody of regimental, corps, and army museums. The importance of these museums as a very considerable factor in the maintenance of regimental and corps spirit has never been in doubt. Not only do they fulfil a great purpose in this respect, but in the case of our infantry regiments of the line they do much to cement the close association between the regiment itself and the inhabitants of its own territorial area.

These museums have for some years past been officially recognized by the War Office, by whom great assistance has been and continues to be given.

I wish now to draw the attention of readers of this JOURNAL to a further development of great interest and importance to the British Army. Colonel R. J. L. Ogilby, D.S.O., D.L., Honorary Colonel of the London Scottish, has made the financial resources available to establish a Trust—known as the Army Museums Ogilby Trust. The object of the founder in establishing this Trust is to promote and foster regimental and army tradition, primarily by assistance in the care and maintenance of existing regimental, corps, and army museums, and also by the establishment of other such museums should the need arise. The Trustees will be in a position to provide and pay for technical assistance and expert advice regarding the equipment, arrangement, care, and maintenance of these museums through visits by experts and liaison officers, and by the organization of exhibitions and lectures in connection with the objects of the Trust.

The Trustees may also in their discretion give financial assistance to the Museum Committee of the Society for Army Historical Research; and to that Society itself in regard to the publication of its Journal and Museum Supplement for the proper attainment of the objects of the Trust.

Provision is made for assistance, if necessary, to public museums which have properly established military sections.

The War Office will in the near future be sending out a circular letter to the curators of all army museums telling them how, and in what respects, applications for assistance can be made. Curators of public museums having military sections will be informed of the necessary procedure through an article which will appear shortly in the Museum Supplement of the Society for Army Historical Research.

The establishment of this Trust is a great event for all those who are interested in the glorious past history of the British Army, and for all those who realize how much that past can contribute to the British Army of today and of tomorrow. We should be grateful to Colonel Ogilby for his great generosity and far-sightedness.

4th January, 1955.

GERALD TEMPLER,
General.

REGULAR OFFICERS' CAREERS

SIR,—I think the chief reason why the Services have difficulty in recruiting officers is that they do not really offer a career. By this I mean that most officers are retired with at least 20 years of working life ahead of them and are compelled to seek other employment. In the past, when it was possible to acquire and pass on a modest fortune this was not a serious matter. Indeed, a modest pension and early retirement may have been a positive inducement, but in present circumstances I am sure it is a very serious deterrent, which must be corrected if recruits are to be forthcoming.

I would make two suggestions, which I believe to be in some way practicable. First, that Service officers should have the right to transfer to some other Government employment when they are too old for active service. Secondly, that suitably qualified cadets should be enabled to attend universities and obtain degrees without expense to themselves, and thus help to fit themselves for civil employment in the future.

J. L. R. METCALF,
Major (Retd.).

25th January, 1955.

GENERAL SERVICE NOTES

NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION

NORTH ATLANTIC COUNCIL.—The communiqué issued on the conclusion of the meetings of the North Atlantic Council in Paris which ended on 18th December included the following paragraphs which are of particular interest :—

(2) The Council noted the progress report by the Secretary-General covering activities and developments in the Organization during the past 12 months. . . .

They noted with interest the steady progress in the infra-structure programmes and in emergency planning in the civil field, and recommended the continuation of these studies and of this work, in particular in Civil Defence. . . .

(5) The Council took note of a progress report submitted by the Military Committee. It noted with satisfaction that a request by the Supreme Allied Commander in Europe had led to negotiations between the Netherlands and the United States, the recent completion of which will permit the establishment of a Supreme Headquarters air defence technical centre in The Hague at which scientists of all member nations will be able to contribute to the development of air defence. The Council also noted that the N.A.T.O. Defence College, now in its fourth year, has made a valuable contribution of qualified personnel to staffs and agencies of N.A.T.O. and of member Governments.

(6) The Council considered a report by the Military Committee on the most effective pattern of N.A.T.O. military defensive strength over the next few years, taking into account modern developments in weapons and techniques. It approved this report as a basis for defence planning and preparations by the N.A.T.O. military authorities, noting that this approval did not involve the delegation of the responsibility of Governments to make decisions for putting plans into action in the event of hostilities.

(7) The Council considered the report on the annual review for 1954 which sets forth the co-ordinated N.A.T.O. defence programmes for the next three years. The review was based on the Council directive adopted in December, 1953, that it would be necessary for member countries to support over a long period forces which, by their balance, quality, and efficiency, would be a major factor in deterring aggression.

The Ministers considered and accepted as military guidance a report by the Military Committee giving its comment on the 1954 annual review. This report stressed that the level of forces for the defence of the N.A.T.O. area should be maintained as planned.

The Council noted that there had been an increase in the strength of N.A.T.O. forces and further steady improvement in their efficiency over the past year. This improvement in quality resulted primarily from the large scale combined exercises held by N.A.T.O. land, sea, and air forces, from the increases in operational and support units, and from the supply of large quantities of new equipment.

The Council expressed its satisfaction at the expansion of European production of defence equipment as well as the continued provision of North American equipment, and urged continued co-operation in research and development.

Following the recommendations made in the annual review report, the Council adopted firm force goals for 1955, provisional goals for 1956, and planning goals for 1957. The force goals agreed upon for 1955 are of about the same numerical strength as those for 1954, but further improvements in training, equipment, and effectiveness are provided for. The German defence contribution under the Paris agreement remains, in the opinion of the Council, an indispensable addition to the defence effort of the West.

MILITARY AGENCY FOR STANDARDIZATION.—The Standing Group has approved the appointment of Air Vice-Marshal E. M. F. Grundy as Chairman of the N.A.T.O. Military Agency for Standardization, which is situated in London.

GREAT BRITAIN

IMPERIAL DEFENCE COLLEGE

The following were selected to attend the 1955 course which started in January :—

ROYAL NAVY.—Captain The Earl Cairns ; Captain R. P. S. Grant, D.S.C. ; Captain M. G. Greig, D.S.C. ; Captain (E) D. J. Hoare ; Captain H. S. Hopkins, C.B.E. ; Captain T. G. C. Jameson ; Captain R. M. Smeeton, M.B.E. ; Captain J. Y. Thompson ; Captain F. R. Twiss, D.S.C.

ARMY.—Brigadier G. H. Baker, C.B.E., M.C. ; Brigadier F. H. Brooke, D.S.O. ; Brigadier A. I. Buchanan-Dunlop, D.S.O., O.B.E. ; Brigadier G. C. Gordon-Lennox, C.V.O., D.S.O. ; Brigadier H. M. Liardet, C.B.E., D.S.O. ; Brigadier J. F. M. McDonald, D.S.O., O.B.E. ; Brigadier L. H. O. Pugh, C.B.E., D.S.O. ; Brigadier R. W. Urquhart, D.S.O. ; Colonel D. Meynell, O.B.E. ; Colonel P. G. Turpin, O.B.E.

ROYAL AIR FORCE.—Air Commodore H. R. Graham, D.S.O., D.F.C. ; Air Commodore J. D. Miller, C.B.E. ; Air Commodore S. C. Widdows, D.F.C. ; Group Captain J. G. Davis, C.B., O.B.E. ; Group Captain O. R. Donaldson, C.B.E., D.S.O., D.F.C. ; Group Captain S. W. R. Hughes, O.B.E., A.F.C. ; Group Captain B. J. R. Roberts ; Group Captain C. J. Salmon, O.B.E. ; Group Captain F. S. Stapleton, D.S.O., D.F.C.

CANADA.—Captain J. Plomer, O.B.E., D.S.C., C.D., R.C.N. ; Brigadier A. E. Wrinch, C.B.E. ; Group Captain R. J. Lane, D.S.O., A.F.C., C.D., R.C.A.F. ; Group Captain H. A. McLearn, R.C.A.F.

AUSTRALIA.—Captain A. W. R. McNicoll, C.B.E., G.M., R.A.N. ; Colonel C. H. Finlay, O.B.E. ; Group Captain C. T. Hannah, O.B.E. ; Mr. R. Kingsland, D.F.C., Department of Air.

NEW ZEALAND.—Brigadier J. R. Page, C.B.E., D.S.O.

SOUTH AFRICA.—Brigadier R. C. Hiemstra, S.A.S.C. (Air).

PAKISTAN.—Air Commodore M. Asghar Khan, R.P.A.F. ; Mr. A. Hilaly, Ministry of Foreign Affairs ; Mr. S. A. Haq.

INDIA.—Commodore A. Chakraverti, I.N. ; Brigadier C. R. Mangat Rai ; Mr. B. S. Grewal, I.C.S.

CEYLON.—Colonel A. M. Muttukumaru, O.B.E., E.D., C.L.I.

CIVIL SERVICE (FOREIGN SERVICE).—Mr. D. M. H. Riches ; Mr. H. K. Matthews, M.B.E.

CIVIL SERVICE (COLONIAL SERVICE).—Mr. J. A. K. Leslie.

HOME CIVIL SERVICE (ADMINISTRATORS).—Mr. G. B. Blaker, Treasury ; Mr. W. Geraghty, War Office ; Mr. D. C. Haselgrove, Ministry of Transport ; Mr. B. Humphreys-Davies, Air Ministry ; Mr. I. A. H. More, Board of Trade ; Mr. P. S. Newell, Admiralty ; Mr. E. L. Sykes, Commonwealth Relations Office.

HOME CIVIL SERVICE (SCIENTISTS).—Mr. D. E. Adams, Ministry of Supply ; Mr. S. Bolshaw, Admiralty.

UNITED STATES.—Colonel John H. Earle, Jnr., U.S.M.C. ; Colonel William M. Rodgers, U.S. Army ; Colonel Frederick J. Sutterlin, U.S.A.F. ; Mr. Gordon Arneson, U.S. Foreign Service.

MOVE OF G.H.Q., MIDDLE EAST

The move of G.H.Q., Middle East Land and Air Forces, from the Suez Canal Zone to Cyprus was completed on 1st December when the new temporary offices opened officially in Nicosia. Completion of the permanent headquarter buildings at Episcopi, near Limassol, is not expected to take place for some time.

TRANSPORT FOR LAND FORCES

It was announced by the Minister of Defence in the House of Commons on 1st December that the Army and the R.A.F. were about to form a joint experimental unit to determine whether helicopters or similar aircraft capable of landing in confined spaces would be practical, efficient, and economical. Meanwhile, the placing of orders for and research into helicopters and kindred aircraft were going ahead.

CIVIL DEFENCE

The Civil Defence (Armed Forces) Bill, the object of which is to enable Civil Defence training to be given to National Service reservists and other members of the armed forces with a view to their mobilization in time of war as members of Civil Defence mobile columns, was published on 3rd June. After having originally been passed by the House of Lords on 26th July, and by the House of Commons on 10th November, it was resubmitted to the Lords for consideration of various amendments, and was finally enacted on 25th November.

DOMINIONS AND COLONIES

CANADA

EXERCISE "BULLDOG TWO"

A joint land and air exercise entitled "Bulldog Two" took place early in December in the Fort Churchill area. The object of the exercise was to practise the reduction of an enemy lodgement in the central sub-Arctic area of Canada's northland, using Edmonton as the main base for operations and Fort Churchill as an advanced base. In preparation for the severe tests to be encountered, the bulk of the participating troops carried out special training in the northern area during the last two weeks of November. All personnel, weapons, equipment, and supplies of the attacking force were parachuted into action, and the exercise was a test for certain types of equipment and supplies.

AUSTRALIA

DEFENCE CONFERENCES.—In November, the C-in-C., Far East, Land Forces, Sir Charles Loewen, arrived in Melbourne to confer with the retiring Australian Chief of the General Staff, Lieut.-General Sir Sidney Rowell, the C.G.S. designate, Lieut.-General H. Wells, and other senior officers of Australian commands. The agenda included defence policy relating to A.N.Z.U.S. and S.E.A.T.O., but results of the conference were not made public. Later in November, the C-in-C., Far East Station, Admiral Sir Charles Lambe, visited Melbourne for talks with senior officers of the Royal Australian Navy including Vice-Admiral Sir John Collins, Rear-Admiral R. R. Dowling, and with Commodore Sir Charles Madden from New Zealand.

In December, members of the Far East military staffs of Great Britain, New Zealand, France, and the United States conferred in Melbourne with senior officers of the Australian Services. The Minister for Defence, Sir Philip McBride, had previously announced that these discussions would be a continuation of routine inter-Service staff discussions which began in Singapore in May, 1951, and which have since been held at half-yearly intervals.

MANUS EXERCISES.—Combined naval and air exercises, known as "Operation Satex", took place over the Pacific in the Manus Island area from 4th to 20th October. These exercises afforded the Australian Navy and Air Force opportunities for testing their strength and strategic movements against supposed enemy invaders heading for Australia. Forces engaged in the exercises comprised eight vessels of the British Far Eastern Fleet, numerous vessels of the Royal Australian Navy, including the aircraft carrier *Sydney*, three destroyers, and two frigates; two Royal Navy submarines normally based at Sydney; and two maritime reconnaissance squadrons, two anti-submarine squadrons, and a fighter squadron of the Royal Australian Air Force.

The object of the exercises was the training of ships and aircraft for wartime tasks. They were carried out in five phases, and were the most extensive and most varied ever held on the Australian station.

CHANGES IN CALL-UP.—Modifications of conditions relating to the call-up of youths for National Service training were announced by the Minister of Defence in the House of Representatives on 28th September, in accordance with decisions by the Australian Government. The main changes provide (1) that, for the present, the call-up of young men who do not live within reasonable distance of Citizen Military Force centres is to be deferred (in the country generally this applies to those living beyond a five-mile radius of training centres), and (2) that the training of rural workers will also be deferred. The existing intake rate for National Service is to remain unchanged, i.e., the number of National Service men to be trained annually is to continue at 33,750.

The Minister explained that there was no weakening of the universal obligation to serve. Youths would still have to register at the age of 18 years. There would be flexibility in the administration of the new exemptions. The scheme would be reviewed in 1955 when, in the light of new circumstances that might have arisen in South-East Asia or elsewhere, the Government should be in a better position to know exactly what was needed in the matter of defence obligations and preparations.

COCOS ISLANDS.—It was announced on 2nd November, by Mr. Casey, Australian Minister of External Affairs, that Britain had agreed to hand over to Australia control of the Cocos Islands in the Indian Ocean. This follows the development by Australia of a war-time air strip in the Cocos into an important staging point. He added that Mr. John Clunies, whose family was granted a perpetual lease of the islands by Queen Victoria, would retain his rights.

INDIA

CREATION OF A NATIONAL VOLUNTEER FORCE

At a meeting in New Delhi on 13th November, the Central Advisory Committee for the Territorial Army decided to abolish the Auxiliary Territorial Force created in 1953, and to replace it by a National Volunteer Force of 500,000 men, raised over a period of five years. The main features of the scheme, which will come into operation after being passed by the Indian Parliament, were :—

(a) 200 camps, each training 500 men for 30 days annually, would be set up every year during the five-year period.

(b) Training would be given in discipline, physical culture, and the elementary use of arms. There would be no liability for those receiving the training to be called up in an emergency. The scheme would thus be purely voluntary.

(c) Recruitment would be open to all males between the ages of 18 and 40, local requirements being borne in mind in this connection.

(d) The proposed volunteer force was not intended to turn out trained soldiers for immediate defence requirements, but was to provide opportunities for the eligible male population to learn discipline and to form a potential nucleus for future defence.

PAKISTAN

U.S. MILITARY AID

On 21st October, it was stated in Washington that the U.S. Government had allotted \$105,000,000 in economic aid to Pakistan for the financial year ending 30th June, 1955, and would also speed up deliveries of military equipment to that country.

FOREIGN**BELGIUM****SUPREME COUNCIL FOR THE ARMED FORCES**

On 6th November, a decree was issued by the Minister for National Defence, M. Spinoy, which provided for the establishment of a Supreme Council for the Belgian Armed Forces. This Council, of which Lieut.-General Piron, Chief of Staff of the Belgian Army, was appointed President, is an inter-Service body and is charged with the task of advising the Minister of National Defence on questions of general policy and high-level co-ordination, and the effect of the development of weapons on the organization, equipment, use, and training of the armed forces.

FRANCE**MILITARY AND CIVILIAN LOSSES IN THE 1914-18 AND 1939-45 WARS**

The following figures, issued by the French Ministry of the Interior, were published on 1st December in the *Journal Officiel* :—

Military. 1914-18 War—1,093,800 killed, 260,000 missing. 1939-45 War—199,061 killed, 6,146 missing.

Civilian. 1914-18 War—statistics not available. 1939-45 War—330,000 killed or missing, of whom 108,260 were killed in military or other operations, 117,000 deported for racial reasons, 65,000 deported for political reasons or for activity in the Resistance movement, and 40,000 deported for forced labour in Germany.

SPAIN**ARMS MANUFACTURE**

It was reported in *The Times* on 12th January that the first weapons to be manufactured in Spain under the off-shore procurement programme for delivery to the U.S. military mission are anti-tank mines and howitzers. A cargo of the anti-tank mines has been despatched to Turkey, and 16 Howitzers (Spanish Army type adapted for U.S. ammunition), the first batch of an order of 96, have been handed over to U.S. ordnance procurement officials, who passed them to Spanish Army representatives as an additional delivery under the mutual defence assistance programme.

RUSSIA**ATOMIC EXPLOSIONS**

It was announced on 26th October by the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission that the Soviet Government had been carrying out a series of tests of nuclear explosives; that the tests, which had started in mid-September, had continued at intervals; and that some radio-active material had fallen on the United States, but only in insignificant quantities.

NAVY NOTES

GREAT BRITAIN

H.M. THE QUEEN

FIRST AND PRINCIPAL NAVAL A.D.C.—Admiral the Hon. Sir Guy H. E. Russell, G.B.E., K.C.B., D.S.O., has been appointed First and Principal Naval Aide-de-Camp to The Queen, to date 24th November, in succession to Admiral Sir John H. Edleston, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., C.B.E., placed on the retired list.

AIDES-DE-CAMP.—The following have been appointed Naval Aides-de-Camp to The Queen from 7th January, 1955, in place of the officers stated :—

Captain Sir St. John R. J. Tyrwhitt, Bart., D.S.O., D.S.C., in succession to Captain G. V. M. Dolphin, D.S.O., promoted to flag rank.

Captain D. G. F. W. Macintyre, D.S.O., D.S.C., in succession to Captain E. Hale.

Captain R. T. White, D.S.O., in succession to Captain J. D. Luce, D.S.O., O.B.E., promoted to flag rank.

Captain (Commodore 2nd Class) J. E. H. McBeath, D.S.O., D.S.C., in succession to Captain P. W. Burnett, D.S.O., D.S.C., promoted to flag rank.

Captain U. H. R. James, C.B.E., in succession to Captain (Commodore 1st Class) W. J. W. Woods, D.S.O., promoted to flag rank.

Captain W. W. R. Bentinck, O.B.E., in succession to Captain G. H. Beale, D.S.O., O.B.E.

Captain P. H. E. Welby-Everard, D.S.C., in succession to Captain (Commodore 2nd Class) K. McN. Campbell-Walter, promoted to flag rank.

Captain (E) G. L. Baily has been appointed a Naval Aide-de-Camp to The Queen from 16th October, in succession to Captain (E) K. J. R. Langmaid, D.S.C.

Colonel R. W. B. Simonds, C.B.E., has been appointed a Royal Marine Aide-de-Camp to The Queen, in succession to Colonel W. S. North, C.B.E.

Commandant N. M. Robertson, C.B.E., Director, Women's Royal Naval Service, has been appointed an Honorary Aide-de-Camp to The Queen from 22nd December, 1954, in succession to Commandant Dame Mary K. Lloyd, D.B.E.

HONORARY SURGEONS AND PHYSICIAN.—Surgeon Captain D. H. Kernohan has been appointed an Honorary Surgeon to The Queen from 6th October, 1954, in succession to Surgeon Captain J. H. B. Crosbie.

Surgeon Captain A. H. Harkins has been appointed an Honorary Physician to The Queen from 31st October, 1954, in succession to Surgeon Rear-Admiral T. N. D'Arcy, C.B.E.

Surgeon Captain (D) R. M. Finlayson has been appointed an Honorary Dental Surgeon to The Queen from 1st October, 1954, in succession to Surgeon Rear-Admiral (D) F. R. P. Williams, C.B.E.

SERGEANT-AT-ARMS.—Lieutenant (S) Kenneth Hall, M.V.O., M.B.E., R.N., has been appointed to be a Sergeant-at-Arms to Her Majesty in the room of Sir George A. Titman, C.B.E., M.V.O., resigned, to date from 1st January, 1955.

BOARD OF ADMIRALTY

FIRST LORD.—The First Lord of the Admiralty, Mr. J. P. L. Thomas, M.P., visited naval establishments at Port Edgar and Rosyth on 11th January, accompanied by the Third Sea Lord and Controller, Vice-Admiral Sir Ralph Edwards. Next day the First Lord attended the launching of H.M.S. *Lynx* by the Princess Royal at Clydebank.

FIRST SEA LORD.—At the invitation of the Norwegian Naval authorities, the First Sea Lord, Admiral of the Fleet Sir Rhoderick R. McGrigor, visited Oslo from 17th to 20th October for talks with Vice-Admiral J. Jacobsen, Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Norwegian Navy. On the completion of his visit to Oslo, the First Sea Lord spent three days in Denmark for talks with Danish naval authorities before returning to London by air on 24th October. During the latter visit, he was the guest of honour at the Danish Trafalgar Day Club in Copenhagen, formed by Danish officers who had served in the Royal Navy during the 1939-45 War.

Between 6th and 21st November, the First Sea Lord visited Canada and the United States, proceeding by air. In Ottawa, he had discussions with the Canadian Chief of Naval Staff, Admiral Mainguy, R.C.N. In Washington, he conferred with the United States Chief of Naval Operations, Admiral Carney; and later had discussions on N.A.T.O. naval matters with the Supreme Allied Commander, Atlantic, Admiral Wright, U.S.N., in Norfolk, Virginia. He also visited Pensacola, Florida, where about 50 British pilots are undergoing basic flying training for the Fleet Air Arm under the N.A.T.O. Mutual Defence Assistance Pact.

ADMIRALTY FLAG.—A silk Admiralty flag was formally presented to the Church of St. Martin-in-the-Fields by the First Lord, Mr. J. P. L. Thomas, at a special service on 26th November, and was received by the vicar, the Rev. L. M. Charles-Edwards. The flag will hang from the Admiralty box in the chancel of the church, which is traditionally the parish church of the Admiralty. For more than two centuries it has been the custom for the Admiralty to supply flags to the church authorities to be flown on special occasions.

CIVIL LORD.—The Civil Lord of the Admiralty, Mr. S. Wingfield Digby, M.P., visited merchant shipyards and Admiralty establishments in Northern Ireland from 4th to 7th October. This was the first visit to the area by a Civil Lord since the war.

During the Christmas recess, the Civil Lord visited Gibraltar to inspect progress made with various civil engineering projects since he was last in Gibraltar three years ago, and to hold discussions with representatives of employees.

HONOURS AND AWARDS

The following were included in the New Year Honours List :—

K.C.B.—Vice-Admiral Sir John A. S. Eccles, K.C.V.O., C.B., C.B.E.; Vice-Admiral (E) F. T. Mason, C.B.

C.B.—Rear-Admiral W. L. G. Adams, O.B.E.; Rear-Admiral H. W. Biggs, D.S.O.; Rear-Admiral (E) J. G. C. Given, C.B.E.; Surgeon Rear-Admiral J. Hamilton, C.B.E.; Rear-Admiral C. D. Howard-Johnston, D.S.O., D.S.C.; Rear-Admiral (S) A. W. Laybourne, C.B.E.; Major-General C. F. Phillips, C.B.E., D.S.O., R.M.; Rear-Admiral B. I. Robertshaw, C.B.E.; Rear-Admiral M. W. St. L. Searle, C.B.E.; Rear-Admiral (E) P. C. Taylor.

G.B.E.—Admiral Sir Geoffrey N. Oliver, K.C.B., D.S.O.

K.B.E.—Vice-Admiral J. F. Stevens, C.B., C.B.E.; Instructor Rear-Admiral W. A. Bishop, C.B., O.B.E.

K.C.M.G.—Admiral Sir Martin Dunbar-Nasmith, V.C., K.C.B., D.L. (retired), lately Vice-Chairman, Imperial War Graves Commission.

FLAG APPOINTMENTS

FIRST SEA LORD.—Admiral the Earl Mountbatten of Burma, K.G., P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., K.C.B., D.S.O., to be a Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty, First Sea Lord and Chief of Naval Staff, in succession to Admiral of the Fleet Sir Rhoderick R. McGrigor, G.C.B., D.S.O., the appointment to take effect in April, 1955.

FAR EAST.—Vice-Admiral A. K. Scott-Moncrieff, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., to be Commander-in-Chief, Far East Station, in succession to Admiral Sir Charles E. Lambe, K.C.B., C.V.O., the appointment to take effect early in April, 1955.

Rear-Admiral R. F. Elkins, C.B., C.V.O., O.B.E., to be Flag Officer Commanding Fifth Cruiser Squadron and Flag Officer Second-in-Command, Far East Station, in succession to Rear-Admiral G. V. Gladstone, C.B. (February, 1955).

B.J.S.M., WASHINGTON.—Rear-Admiral R. A. Currie, D.S.C., to be Chief of Staff to the Chairman of the British Joint Services Mission, Washington, in succession to Major-General C. R. Price, C.B., C.B.E. (December, 1954).

NAVAL RESERVES.—Vice-Admiral J. W. Cuthbert, C.B., C.B.E., to be Admiral Commanding Reserves, in succession to Vice-Admiral A. K. Scott-Moncrieff, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O. (January, 1955).

AIR SUPPLIES.—Rear-Admiral W. T. Couchman, C.B., C.V.O., D.S.O., O.B.E., to be Deputy Controller of Supplies (Air) in Ministry of Supply, in succession to Vice-Admiral C. John, C.B. (March, 1955).

ORDNANCE BOARD.—The Ministry of Supply announced on 15th November the appointment of Rear-Admiral S. A. Pears (retired) to succeed Major-General P. le M. S. Stonhouse-Gostling as President of the Ordnance Board with effect from 27th February, 1955.

Dr. H. F. Willis has been appointed Chief of the Royal Naval Scientific Service in succession to Mr. W. R. J. Cook, C.B., who has joined the staff of the Atomic Energy Authority.

RETIREMENTS AND PROMOTIONS

The following were announced to date 24th November, 1954 :—

Admiral Sir John H. Edelsten, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., C.B.E., to be placed on the retired list.

Vice-Admiral Sir William G. Andrewes, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., to be promoted to Admiral in H.M. Fleet.

Rear-Admiral (acting Vice-Admiral) G. Barnard, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., to be promoted to Vice-Admiral in H.M. Fleet.

The following were announced to date 16th December, 1954 :—

To be placed on the retired list :—Admiral Sir William R. Slayter, K.C.B., D.S.O., D.S.C. ; Vice-Admiral Sir W. York La R. Beverley, K.B.E., C.B. ; Vice-Admiral Sir C. Aubrey L. Mansergh, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.C. ; Vice-Admiral Sir Albert L. Poland, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., D.S.C. ; Rear-Admiral A. D. Torlesse, C.B., D.S.O.

To be promoted to Admiral in H.M. Fleet :—Vice-Admiral Sir C. T. Mark Pizey, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O.

To be promoted to Vice-Admiral in H.M. Fleet :—Rear-Admiral A. G. V. Hubback, C.B., C.B.E. ; Rear-Admiral S. H. Carlill, C.B., D.S.O. ; Rear-Admiral J. S. C. Salter, C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E. ; Rear-Admiral M. Richmond, C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E.

The following were announced in *The London Gazette* on 9th November :—

Captain (E) W. K. Weston, O.B.E., promoted Rear-Admiral (E) (27th September, 1954).

Surgeon Rear-Admiral (D) F. R. P. Williams, O.B.E., retires (1st October, 1954).

Surgeon Captain (D) L. B. Osborne, Q.H.D.S., promoted Surgeon Rear-Admiral (D) (1st October, 1954).

HALF-YEARLY LISTS

The following promotions and retirements were announced by the Admiralty to date 7th January, 1955 :—

TO BE PROMOTED TO REAR-ADMIRAL IN H.M. FLEET.—Captain (acting Rear-Admiral) G. V. M. Dolphin, D.S.O., A.D.C. ; Captain J. D. Luce, D.S.O., O.B.E., A.D.C. ; Captain

P. W. Burnett, D.S.O., D.S.C., A.D.C.; Captain (Commodore 1st Class) W. J. W. Woods, D.S.O., A.D.C.; Captain K. McN. Campbell-Walter, A.D.C.; Captain (Commodore 1st Class) L. G. Durlacher, O.B.E., D.S.C.; Captain G. K. Collett, D.S.C.

TO BE PLACED ON THE RETIRED LIST IN THE RANK OF CAPTAIN.—Captain E. Hale, A.D.C.; Captain G. H. Beale, D.S.O., O.B.E., A.D.C.; Captain H. N. S. Brown, C.B.E.; Captain J. S. S. Litchfield, O.B.E.; Captain C. F. J. Lloyd Davies, D.S.O., D.S.C.; Captain (Commodore 2nd Class) Sir Aubrey St. Clair-Ford, Bart., D.S.O.; Captain D. C. Ingram, C.B.E., D.S.C.

The following promotions were announced to date from 31st December, 1954:—

Commander to Captain.—D. Vincent-Jones, D.S.C.; J. G. B. Cooke, D.S.C.; W. J. R. Campbell, O.B.E.; R. H. C. Wyld, D.S.C.; E. H. Cartwright; H. R. B. Newton, D.S.C. (acting Captain); H. H. Bracken; C. P. Yates; G. J. A. Lumsden, D.S.C.; E. M. Harvey; D. E. Bromley-Martin; C. P. Norman, D.S.O., D.S.C.; P. W. W. Graham, D.S.C.; I. M. Clegg; E. M. Usherwood, D.S.C.; C. D. Madden, M.V.O., D.S.C.; B. J. Anderson; A. P. Culmer, D.S.C.

Commander (E) to Captain (E).—H. A. Martin, D.S.C.; T. B. Yates; T. W. E. Dommett; D. P. Mansfield; N. S. Roberts.

Commander (L) to Captain (L).—J. S. Raven, B.Sc. (acting Captain (L)); J. S. Caunter.

Instructor Commander to Instructor Captain.—E. I. Spinks, B.A.

Surgeon Commander to Surgeon Captain.—A. Long; J. M. Reese, O.B.E.

Surgeon Commander (D) to Surgeon Captain (D).—W. E. L. Brigham (acting Surgeon Captain (D)); W. Holgate, O.B.E.

Commander (S) to Captain (S).—J. E. Langdon; G. D. Ardron; J. Ellerton, D.S.C.

EXERCISES AND CRUISES

SPRING CRUISE.—Ships of the Home Fleet began their Spring exercises and cruise on 17th January. The Commander-in-Chief, Admiral Sir Michael Denny, was in H.M.S. *Tyne*, transferring his flag to the fast minelayer *Apollo* on certain occasions. Squadrons assembled at Portland before sailing for Gibraltar for the main weapon training period, exercising on passage in co-operation with the forces of other N.A.T.O. countries. Towards the end of February and early in March they were to pay informal visits to ports of the French and Italian Riviera. From 10th to 15th March the Fleet was to take part in combined exercises in the western Mediterranean with the Mediterranean Fleet. The Royal yacht *Britannia*, following the tour of H.R.H. Princess Margaret in the West Indies, was to take part in the exercises with the Duke of Edinburgh on board. Ships were to disperse to their home ports by 1st April for Easter leave.

VISIT TO LONDON.—On the conclusion of their Autumn training period at Gibraltar the ships of the Home Fleet returned early in December. Before completing her programme the fast minelayer *Apollo*, flying the flag of Admiral Sir Michael Denny, visited London, arriving at Battle Bridge Tier on 2nd December. There was an official exchange of calls with the Lord Mayor of London and other civic authorities. It was believed that this was the first time that a Home Fleet flagship had come so far up the Thames since the end of the 1914-18 War, and possibly since the turn of the century.

SUBMARINE EXERCISE.—Starting on 24th October, ships and submarines of the British, French, Netherlands, Norwegian, and United States Navies, together with aircraft of R.A.F. Coastal Command, began submarine and anti-submarine exercises off the north coast of Scotland, under the N.A.T.O. command of Rear-Admiral G. B. H. Fawkes, Commander, Submarine Force, Eastern Atlantic.

TRIESTE WITHDRAWAL.—Ships of the Mediterranean Fleet co-operated in the withdrawal of the British occupation forces from Trieste, which was completed on

25th October. The aircraft carrier *Centaur* and the fast frigates *Roebuck* and *Whirlwind* conveyed the last British troops to Malta. Major-General Sir John Winterton, the General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, embarked in the *Whirlwind*.

EAST INDIES.—The rulers of six States on the Trucial Coast were embarked in the cruiser *Newfoundland* early in December for a demonstration exercise in the Persian Gulf. The cruiser flew the flag of the Commander-in-Chief, East Indies, Vice-Admiral C. F. W. Norris, and was supported by the frigate *Loch Insh* and aircraft of 73 Squadron, R.A.F., from Habbaniyah. The *Loch Insh* also embarked 20 Arab non-commissioned officers of Trucial Oman Levies, some of whom were transferred to the *Newfoundland* during the exercise by means of jackstay. Somali ratings in both ships acted as interpreters.

FAR EAST.—The Commander-in-Chief, Far East Station, Admiral Sir Charles Lambe, visited Australia between 20th November and 1st December for discussions with the Australian Commonwealth Naval Board. On the occasion of the ninth anniversary of the founding of the Navy of the Republic of Korea, the cruiser *Birmingham*, flagship of Rear-Admiral G. V. Gladstone, Second-in-Command, Far East Station, with the destroyers *Cossack*, *Concord*, and *Comus*, visited the main naval base of the Korean Navy at Chinhae. Rear-Admiral Gladstone took the salute at a parade of 2,500 men, headed by 400 midshipmen of the Naval Academy, and later addressed the parade.

A group of ships of the Far East Fleet, consisting of the *Birmingham*, *Defender*, *Concord*, *Cockade*, and *Comus*, entered Manus Harbour in October between two phases of a series of training exercises in the Caroline Islands area with ships of the Royal Australian Navy.

WEST INDIES.—Following severe damage by hurricane in the southern Department of Haiti in October, the survey ship *Vidal* proceeded there from Kingston, Jamaica, with relief stores and a contingent of the 1st Battalion, The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, and personnel of the R.A.M.C. At Jeremie, a coastal town of about 70,000 inhabitants, a supply of food was landed to feed refugees from outlying districts, and a naval party and boats were left to unload store ships. As the *Vidal* steamed westwards along the coast to assist outlying and completely isolated villages, the devastation became worse. The townships of Dame Marie and Anse D'Hainault were found to be completely destroyed.

SOUTH ATLANTIC.—It has been announced in London and South Africa that during the course of air/sea exercises off Durban in June last, in which the British submarine *Tudor*, other ships of the Royal Navy and of the South African and French Navies, and aircraft of the South African Air Force, the Royal Air Force, and French Air Forces were engaged, an unidentified underwater target, almost certainly a submarine, was contacted. H.M. submarine *Tudor* was, at the time, on the surface.

PERSONNEL

CADET SCHOLARSHIPS.—On 22nd November, the First Lord, Mr. J. P. L. Thomas, outlined in Parliament a scheme for the award of scholarships to boys to enable them to remain at school until they are old enough to compete for naval cadetships at the Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, and for entry into the Royal Marines, at about the age of 18. Up to 75 scholarships, and 15 honorary scholarships for those who are not eligible for financial assistance, may be awarded each year. There will be three competitions annually. Candidates must be between the ages of 15 years 8 months and 16 years on 1st January, 1st May, or 1st September for the award of scholarships in the Summer, Autumn, and Easter terms respectively, and applications must reach the Admiralty by 1st November, 1st March, or 1st July respectively. The age limits allow a boy one chance only. Candidates who are recommended by their headmaster, both for their educational abilities and personal qualities, will first be called before a preliminary selection board, which will visit various centres in the United Kingdom. In addition to an interview, candidates will be required to undergo short written intelligence

tests. Those who are successful at this board will later be called before the Admiralty Interview Board and undergo tests of intelligence, aptitude, and personality at the Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, and a medical examination. Soon after the second interview the names of successful candidates will be announced and the first instalment of the scholarship paid. A scholarship will usually be held for two years, subject to satisfactory progress and conduct. Parents or guardians of successful candidates will be required to give an undertaking to the Admiralty that the boy intends to remain at school and do his best to qualify for entry into the Service. In return, the Admiralty will undertake to reserve a place for each scholarship holder in the Britannia Royal Naval College, or in the Royal Marines, subject to his satisfactory progress, behaviour, and medical fitness and to his reaching the qualifying educational standard at the age of 18.

LIVING SPACES.—The large amount of fighting equipment in modern warships restricts the space available for living quarters. As the Board of Admiralty attach the greatest importance to making the best use of this, they have appointed Major H. S. Rowan, who has had extensive experience in fitting out living spaces in merchant ships of all types, as honorary consultant to the Director of Naval Construction on the equipment and furnishing of living spaces. Major Rowan is managing director of Rowan and Boden, ship upholsterers and furnishers, of Glasgow and London.

BATTLE HONOURS

The Admiralty have issued a Fleet Order listing the Battle Honours which may be claimed by all H.M. Ships and Fleet Air Arm Squadrons now in commission or reserve. These Honours cover the period from the Armada in 1588—the earliest action of which sufficient is known—to the end of the 1939–45 War. A copy of this Fleet Order is available for reference in the Department of the Chief of Naval Information, Admiralty, Whitehall.

MATERIEL

NEW CRUISERS.—The Admiralty announced in October that the three "Tiger" class cruisers, whose completion has been deferred for several years pending the development of modern armament, are now to be proceeded with. The *Tiger* will be completed by John Brown and Company, Ltd., Clydebank; the *Blake* by the Fairfield Shipbuilding and Engineering Company, Ltd., Govan; and the *Defence* by Swan Hunter and Wigham Richardson, Ltd., Newcastle-on-Tyne.

NEW CARRIER.—H.M.S. *Bulwark*, the third aircraft carrier to join the Fleet in 1954, was provisionally accepted into service in November. She is to take over from H.M.S. *Illustrious* the duties of the trials and training carrier. Her peace-time complement, excluding the complements of aircraft, will be 76 officers and 960 ratings.

LAUNCHES.—H.R.H. the Princess Royal performed the naming ceremony at the launch of H.M.S. *Lynx* from the shipyard of John Brown and Co., Clydebank, on 12th January. The *Lynx* is a frigate of 340-ft. length and 40-ft. beam. She will be especially equipped for the anti-aircraft defence of the Fleet.

The anti-submarine frigate *Russell* was launched on 10th December from the shipyard of Swan Hunter and Wigham Richardson, Ltd., Wallsend-on-Tyne. The naming ceremony was performed by Lady Russell, wife of the Second Sea Lord, Admiral the Hon. Sir Guy Russell. The *Russell* has an extreme length of 310-ft. and a beam of 33-ft. She will be armed with three Bofors guns and two three-barrelled anti-submarine mortars.

NAMES FOR SMALL SUBMARINES.—The Admiralty have decided to give the names of the smaller denizens of the waters to the new class of small submarine. The first, launched on 1st October as the X.51, is to be named *Stickleback*. The second, launched on 30th December, has been named *Shrimp*.

DOCKYARD ACCIDENT.—Two dockyard workers died and two more were reported missing as the result of an accident at Chatham Dockyard on 15th December, when the

caisson at the entrance to No. 3 dry dock collapsed while men were working on board the submarine *Talent* under refit. The inrush of water swept the vessel off the blocks and then out of the dock to the west side of the Medway, where she grounded on the mud. After announcing the facts in Parliament, the First Lord paid tribute to the very prompt action of the dockyard and naval personnel on the spot in organizing immediate rescue work, and the very ready and skilful assistance rendered by the Royal Engineers at Chatham and the Kent Fire Brigade.

FIBREGLASS BOATS.—The Admiralty are continuing experiments with fibreglass boats. For some time a 20-ft. motor dory has been undergoing sea trials, and in December it was exhibited at the National Boat Show at Olympia. A more complicated boat—a 25-ft. ship's motor boat—has been completed and is to be tested in a seagoing ship. The technique of construction and the basic materials are in the early stages of development.

FLEET AIR ARM

LAST SEAFIRE SQUADRON.—The last Fleet Air Arm squadron equipped with Supermarine Seafire aircraft—the famous Battle of Britain Spitfire adapted for the needs of the Royal Navy—was disbanded on 23rd November. The Squadron, No. 746, based at the R.N. Air Station at Yeovilton, Somerset, and led by its Commanding Officer, Lieutenant-Commander B. Bevans, D.S.C., R.N., took part in a ceremonial farewell fly-past over the establishment. Afterwards, a presentation replica of the Seafire was accepted from a representative of Vickers-Armstrongs, Ltd., designers and manufacturers, by Captain A. F. Black, D.S.C., R.N., Commanding Officer at Yeovilton.

STATIONS TO CLOSE.—As a result of the measures taken by the Admiralty to achieve greater concentration, the R.N. Air Station at St. Merryn, Cornwall, is to be closed down within two years. During the Spring a start will be made on the transfer of the training task. When this is completed the station will be placed in reserve. It is also reported that H.M.S. *Siskin*, the R.N. Air Station at Gosport, is similarly to be closed down in 1956.

JUNGLE HELICOPTERS.—In the 18 months up to October, 1954, No. 848 Squadron of naval helicopters, commanded by Lieutenant-Commander Brian Paterson, M.B.E., R.N., flew 6,107 hours in 600 operations in Malaya. During these operations 18,000 troops were lifted to be put down in the jungle, and 500 casualties were evacuated. In addition, 363,000 lb. of freight were lifted in and out of the jungle.

ROYAL NAVAL VOLUNTEER RESERVE

MINESWEEPING EXERCISE

Minesweepers of the Inshore Flotilla concluded a minesweeping exercise on 13th November in the Minches. They operated from a temporary base set up at Loch Ewe and manned by officers and ratings of the Tay Division, R.N.V.R., including the W.R.N.V.R. The exercise was designed to find out whether sustained operations of this type could be successfully carried out from a base where no naval facilities exist at the outset, and which is manned by personnel recently re-entered into the naval Service from civilian life. The results showed that such a task can be successfully accomplished.

WOMEN'S ROYAL NAVAL SERVICE

FIRST G.C.M. AWARDS

The first two members of the W.R.N.S. to qualify for Good Conduct Medals after 15 years' service received them at Divisions in the R.N. Barracks, Portsmouth, on 5th November. They were Chief Wren Jessie B. Owen, B.E.M., a writer in the main pay office, H.M.S. *Victory*, Portsmouth; and Chief Wren Edna P. M. Parsons, a writer in the main drafting office of H.M.S. *Victory*. The presentation was made by the Admiral Superintendent, Portsmouth, Rear-Admiral J. S. C. Salter.

ROYAL MARINES

CAPTAIN GENERAL.—H.R.H. The Duke of Edinburgh, the Captain General of the Royal Marines, was the guest of honour at the annual dinner of the Royal Marines Officers' Dinner Club in London on 8th December, 1954.

APPOINTMENT.—Major-General H. T. Newman, C.B., C.B.E. (retired), was appointed Honorary Colonel Commandant, Portsmouth Group, Royal Marines on 31st October, 1954, vice Major-General G. E. Wildman-Lushington, C.B., C.B.E. (retired).

PROMOTIONS.—The following promotions were notified on 31st December, 1954 :—

Lieut.-Colonel to Colonel.—E. A. Brown, O.B.E. ; F. A. Eustace, O.B.E.

TACTICAL TRAINING.—Brigade Headquarters, 3 Commando Brigade, and 40 and 45 Commandos carried out a period of tactical training in Tripolitania during the period 4th November–10th December, 1954. They were based in the area of Tarhuna, 72 miles south-west of Tripoli. During this period they carried out exercises with local army units.

SENIOR OFFICERS' STUDY PERIOD.—The senior officers' Winter study period will be held at Eastney between 14th and 18th March, 1955, inclusive. The subject for this year's study is an amphibious operation of the seize and hold type. This study, which will be directed by the Major-General Royal Marines, Portsmouth, will include the employment of 3 Commando Brigade in a limited war of the Korea type.

SNOW TRAINING, 1955.—Snow training courses are again being carried out in the Cairngorm Mountains, Scotland, this Winter and an advanced course is to be held at Dombass, in Norway, by arrangement with the Norwegian Army.

DOMINIONS AND COLONIES

CANADA

SUBMARINES FOR HALIFAX.—Arrangements have been made between the Admiralty and the Canadian Naval Board to base three submarines of the Royal Navy at Halifax, Nova Scotia, for the anti-submarine training of ships of the Royal Canadian Navy and Canadian Maritime Air Forces. The three selected are H.M. Submarines *Astute*, *Ambush*, and *Alderney*.

On 29th November, a draft of about 60 men of the Royal Canadian Navy, the first of a party of about 200 which is to serve in submarines of the Royal Navy, arrived in Great Britain by air. These men will be trained in H.M.S. *Dolphin*, the submarine base at Gosport, and dispersed among operational boats. They will replace men who have been drafted to the *Astute*, *Ambush*, and *Alderney*.

USE OF BERMUDA.—The Royal Canadian Navy has asked British naval authorities for permission to use the disused naval dockyard in Bermuda, which was closed in 1951, to put week-end recreational parties ashore.

VISIT TO TURKEY.—H.M. Canadian destroyer *Algonquin* and three frigates arrived at Istanbul on 15th November on a three-day official visit. This is stated to have been the first time that a Canadian squadron has visited Turkey.

AUSTRALIA

FLAG CHANGES.—It was announced on 4th November that Captain H. M. Burrell, R.A.N., hitherto Deputy Chief of Naval Staff, succeeds Rear-Admiral R. R. Dowling, C.B.E., D.S.O., as Flag Officer Commanding H. M. Australian Fleet from 23rd February, 1955, when Admiral Dowling succeeds Vice-Admiral Sir John A. Collins, K.B.E., C.B., as Chief of Naval Staff and First Naval Member of the Australian Commonwealth Naval Board.

VISIT BY U.S. MARINES.—A party of 17 U.S. Marines, headed by General L. C. Shepherd, Commanding General, U.S. Marine Corps, visited Australia in November as guests of the Australian Government, to take part in the unveiling of Memorial Gates at Balcombe, Victoria, where the 1st Division of the U.S. Marine Corps was camped for

rehabilitation and retraining late in 1942, after the fighting at Guadalcanal. General Shepherd was Assistant Divisional Commander during the Guadalcanal fighting. The Memorial Gates and surroundings, in simple design in brickwork and wrought iron, were made by young soldiers of the Army Apprentices' School, Balcombe. The unveiling ceremony was performed on 24th November by the Governor of Victoria, General Sir Dallas Brooks.

SOUTH AFRICA

ADMIRALTY MISSION.—Following upon talks on defence matters of mutual interest which were held in September with the Minister of Defence, Mr. Erasmus, during a visit to London, a small Admiralty mission led by Mr. C. G. Jarrett, Deputy Secretary, Admiralty, left for South Africa on 17th October for discussions with officials of the Union Government and to examine and report to the two Governments on various matters concerning naval co-operation. In reply to a question in the House of Commons on 27th October, the Parliamentary Secretary, Commander Noble, said that no decision had been taken about the future of the naval base at Simonstown. Any decision on this, as on other questions of policy, would have to be subject to agreement between the two Governments.

AMMUNITION DUMP.—On 21st October, Mr. Erasmus stated that Great Britain had agreed to vacate a Royal Navy ammunition dump in South Africa within two years. He also said that talks on the future of the Simonstown naval base were being resumed.

INDIA

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF

Vice-Admiral Sir Mark Pizey, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., who has been Commander-in-Chief, Indian Navy, since 1951, has been promoted to Admiral (see "Retirements and Promotions").

FOREIGN

BURMA

ORDER FOR COASTAL CRAFT

An order for a number of motor torpedo boats and motor gun boats for delivery to the Burmese Government has been placed by the Admiralty with Saunders-Roe (Anglesey), Ltd., an associate company of Saunders-Roe, Ltd. The value of the order, including engines, equipment, and spares, is over £1,500,000. The boats will be of all aluminium construction.

FRANCE

NEW SUBMARINE.—The submarine *Narval*, the first of a new series being built for the French Navy in French yards, was launched at Cherbourg on 11th December. She has a displacement of 1,200 tons. Five more vessels of the same type and four smaller submarines of 400-500 tons are under construction.

MINESWEEPER TRANSFERRED.—The British minesweeper *Frettenham*, the first of a group of 15 to be completed in British yards under the United States Offshore Procurement Programme, was officially transferred to the French Navy at a ceremony at H.M.S. *Diligence*, commissioning and equipping base at Hythe, near Southampton, on 13th December. The *Frettenham* was first delivered to the U.S. Navy Shipbuilding Liaison Officer in England, Commander F. C. Jones, U.S.N., and then to the French Naval Attache in London, Rear-Admiral Yann Le Hagne.

ITALY

U.S. SUBMARINE TRANSFERRED

The United States submarine *Barb*, completed in 1942, which had a distinguished record in the last war, was transferred to representatives of the Italian Navy at a ceremony at New London, Connecticut, on 14th December.

NORWAY

SHIP REPLACEMENTS.—In a telegram dated 29th December, the Oslo Correspondent of *The Times* reported that the Commander-in-Chief of the Norwegian Navy, Vice-Admiral Johannes Jacobsen, had said the replacement of some units was now necessary. Britain was willing to transfer ships to Norway on reasonable terms. To replace the present ships with American units would involve serious difficulties, as Britain was the Norwegian Navy's natural supply base and close co-operation with the Royal Navy was of the utmost importance.

NEW WOMEN'S SERVICE.—Miss Ruth Ringvold, who has been appointed Superintendent to organize a Women's Service for the Royal Norwegian Navy, on 10th January began a period of six weeks' attachment to the W.R.N.S. in the United Kingdom, to study its composition and work.

PERU

NAVAL TANKER LAUNCHED

The tanker *Sechura*, an auxiliary for the Peruvian Navy, was launched from the Southampton yard of John I. Thornycroft on 12th November, in the presence of Vice-Admiral Roque A. Saldias, Minister of Marine.

SPAIN

MINESWEEPER TRANSFERRED.—On 10th November, Spain took delivery at San Diego, California, of the second minesweeper to be transferred to the Spanish Navy by the United States under the Mutual Defence Assistance Programme. The vessel, renamed *Llobregat*, after a river in Catalonia, is a sister ship to the *Nalon*, delivered in February last.

NAVAL BASES.—Admiral R. B. Carney, United States Chief of Naval Operations, arrived in Madrid on 27th November for a series of visits and conferences lasting until 6th December in connection with the setting up of American naval bases at Cadiz and Cartagena. In a statement to the Press on 1st December, Admiral Carney said that the association of free nations would require port facilities wherever possible. The agreement between Spain and the United States was a "bilateral one and is not associated with N.A.T.O." The agreement was for the joint use of the ports under the Spanish flag.

UNITED STATES

LARGEST CARRIER LAUNCHED

The aircraft carrier *Forrestal*, described as the largest warship ever built, was 'launched' on 11th December by flooding the graving dock in which she was built at Newport News, Virginia. The vessel was named after Mr. James Forrestal, first Secretary of Defence, by his widow. The *Forrestal*, which will displace about 60,000 tons, was hailed by Admiral Carney, Chief of Naval Operations, as "the mightiest warship of the oceans—versatile and durable. She and her sisters to follow are our future ships of the line and, as such, will possess an ever-expanding usefulness as a diplomatic instrument in peace and a powerful weapon in war. The aircraft carrier, by her very nature, becomes an obscure target for enemy detection and effective attack. Even if her whereabouts become known, she, with guided-missile-carrying companions, will offer a formidable defence against any weapons now on the drawing boards or even on the horizon."

ARMY NOTES

GREAT BRITAIN

H.M. THE QUEEN

The Duke of Gloucester visited the Mons Officer Cadet School at Aldershot on 4th November, and took the Salute at the Passing-Out Parade.

The Duke of Gloucester unveiled the new west window in memory of King George VI in the Memorial Chapel at the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst, on 5th November.

The Queen has been graciously pleased to approve the following appointments:—

TO BE AIDES-DE-CAMP TO HER MAJESTY.—Brigadier H. A. Potter, C.B.E., late R.A.S.C. (28th July, 1954), vice Major-General D. H. V. Buckle, C.B.E., promoted substantive Major-General; Brigadier (temporary Major-General) C. R. Price, C.B., C.B.E., B.A., B.Sc. (1st November, 1954), vice Brigadier E. F. E. Armstrong, C.B.E., retired.

TO BE HONORARY AIDE-DE-CAMP TO HER MAJESTY.—Brigadier Mary Railton, C.B.E., W.R.A.C. (4th September, 1954), vice Brigadier Dame M. F. Coulshed, D.B.E., T.D.

TO BE COLONELS COMMANDANT.—Of the Corps of Royal Engineers, General Sir John F. M. Whiteley, K.C.B., C.B.E., M.C. (15th October, 1954), vice Lieut.-General Sir Giffard Le Q. Martel, K.C.B., K.B.E., D.S.O., M.C., M.I.Mech.E., tenure expired; of the Royal Army Ordnance Corps, Major-General G. A. N. Swiney, C.B., C.B.E., M.C. (7th December, 1954), vice Major-General G. T. W. Horne, C.B., C.B.E., resigned; of Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps, Brigadier Dame Anne Thomson, D.B.E., R.R.C. (12th December, 1954), vice Dame Louisa J. Wilkinson, D.B.E., R.R.C., tenure expired.

TO BE COLONELS OF REGIMENTS.—Of The Queen's Bays (2nd Dragoon Guards), Lieut.-Colonel (honorary Colonel) G. W. C. Draffen, D.S.O. (1st November, 1954), vice Colonel (honorary Brigadier) J. J. Kingstone, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C., resigned; of the 1st The Royal Dragoons, Colonel (honorary Brigadier) A. H. Pepys, D.S.O. (9th December, 1954), vice Colonel F. W. Wilson-Fitzgerald, D.S.O., M.C., tenure expired; of The South Staffordshire Regiment, Colonel (honorary Major-General) A. W. Lee, C.B., M.C. (11th November, 1954), vice Major-General Sir Guy de C. Glover, K.B.E., C.B., D.S.O., M.C., resigned.

REPRESENTATIVE COLONELS COMMANDANT, 1955.—The following have been appointed Representative Colonels Commandant of their respective Corps and Regiments for the year 1955:—

Royal Armoured Corps (Cavalry Wing).—General Sir Richard L. McCreery, G.C.B., K.B.E., D.S.O., M.C., D.L. (*R.T.R. Wing.*)—Field-Marshal The Viscount Montgomery of Alamein, K.G., G.C.B., D.S.O. *Royal Tank Regiment.*—Major-General N. W. Duncan, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O.

Royal Regiment of Artillery.—Lieut.-General Sir Philip M. Balfour, K.B.E., C.B., M.C.

Corps of Royal Engineers.—General Sir Kenneth N. Crawford, K.C.B., M.C.

Royal Corps of Signals.—Major-General C. H. H. Vulliamy, C.B., D.S.O.

Royal Army Service Corps.—Major-General H. C. Goodfellow, C.B., C.B.E., A.M.I.Mech.E.

Royal Army Medical Corps.—Major-General R. D. Cameron, C.B., C.B.E., M.C., M.B.

Royal Army Ordnance Corps.—Major-General W. W. Richards, C.B., C.B.E., M.C.

Corps of Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers.—Major-General Sir E. Bertram Rowcroft, K.B.E., C.B., M.I.Mech.E., M.I.E.E.

Royal Army Dental Corps.—Major-General A. B. Austin, C.B., F.D.S., R.C.S.

HONOURS AND AWARDS

MALAYA.—The following was included on 26th October in the list of awards published in the Second Supplement to *The London Gazette* of 22nd October, 1954, in recognition of distinguished service in Malaya during the period 1st January to 30th June, 1954 :—

C.B.—Major-General (temporary) W. H. Lambert, *C.B.E.*

KENYA.—The following was included on 1st January in the list of awards published in the Seventh Supplement to *The London Gazette* of 31st December, 1954, in recognition of distinguished service in Kenya during the period 21st April to 20th October, 1954 :—

C.B.—Major-General (temporary) G. D. G. Heyman, *C.B.E.*

NEW YEAR HONOURS.—The following were included in the New Year Honours List :—

K.C.B.—Lieut.-General Sir Lashmer G. Whistler, *K.B.E.*, *C.B.*, *D.S.O.* ; Major-General Sir T. John W. Winterton, *K.C.M.G.*, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*

C.B.—Brigadier (temporary) G. H. Baker, *C.B.E.*, *M.C.* ; Major-General G. E. R. Bastin, *O.B.E.* ; Major-General D. H. V. Buckle, *C.B.E.* ; Major-General C. H. Colquhoun, *O.B.E.* ; Brigadier (temporary) R. B. F. K. Goldsmith, *C.B.E.* ; Major-General C. W. Greenway, *C.B.E.*, *Q.H.S.*, *M.R.C.S.*, *L.R.C.P.* ; Major-General J. N. R. Moore, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.* ; Major-General F. D. Rome, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.* ; Brigadier R. J. Springhall, *O.B.E.* ; Major-General L. N. Tyler, *O.B.E.*

C.M.G.—Brigadier G. A. C. Macnab, *C.B.*

K.B.E.—Major-General S. Greeves, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.*, *M.C.* ; Lieut.-General E. O. Herbert, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.* ; Major-General R. L. Scoones, *C.B.*, *D.S.O.*, *O.B.E.*

Royal Red Cross, First Class.—Lieut.-Colonel Joan Howe, *A.R.R.C.*, *Q.A.R.A.N.C.* ; Colonel Enid G. M. Reynolds, *M.B.E.*, *Q.A.R.A.N.C.*

APPOINTMENTS

MINISTRY OF SUPPLY.—Brigadier A. H. Musson appointed Vice-President, Ordnance Board, Ministry of Supply, with the temporary rank of Major-General (February, 1955).

WAR OFFICE.—Brigadier F. J. O'Meara, *M.D.*, *F.R.C.P.I.*, appointed Director Medical Services, with the temporary rank of Major-General (11th July, 1954).

Major-General R. W. McLeod, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, appointed Chairman, War Office Committee on Royal Signals Organization (1st September, 1954).

Brigadier W. A. D. Drummond, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *F.R.C.S.*, appointed Deputy Director-General Medical Services, with the temporary rank of Major-General (3rd October, 1954).

Major-General E. M. Bastyan, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, appointed Vice Adjutant-General (March, 1955).

Colonel D. L. Muil, *O.B.E.*, appointed Director, Army Dental Service (March, 1955).

Brigadier G. O. Crawford, *C.B.E.*, *A.D.C.*, appointed Inspector, Royal Army Ordnance Corps, with the temporary rank of Major-General (April, 1955).

Major-General H. E. Pyman, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.*, appointed Director of Weapons and Development (April, 1955).

Brigadier (temporary Major-General) W. H. Lambert, *C.B.E.*, appointed Director of Personnel Administration (May, 1955).

Lieut.-General Sir Maurice Chilton, *K.B.E.*, *C.B.*, appointed Quarter-Master-General to the Forces (August, 1955).

UNITED KINGDOM.—Major-General H. Murray, *C.B.*, *D.S.O.*, appointed *G.O.C.-in-C.*, Scottish Command, with the temporary rank of Lieut.-General (February, 1955).

Brigadier (temporary Major-General) W. R. Cox, D.S.O., appointed Commander, 53rd (Welsh) Infantry Division, T.A., and Mid-West District (March, 1955).

General Sir George W. E. J. Erskine, K.C.B., K.B.E., D.S.O., appointed G.O.C.-in-C., Southern Command (November, 1955).

GERMANY.—Major-General R. W. McLeod, C.B., C.B.E., appointed G.O.C., 6th Armoured Division (February, 1955).

Colonel (temporary Brigadier) J. D'A. Anderson, C.B.E., D.S.O., appointed G.O.C., 11th Armoured Division, with the temporary rank of Major-General (April, 1955).

Major-General C. B. Fairbanks, C.B., C.B.E., appointed G.O.C., Rhine District (May, 1955).

EAST AFRICA.—Major-General G. W. Lathbury, C.B., D.S.O., M.B.E., appointed C.-in-C., with the temporary rank of Lieut.-General (May, 1955, or later, depending on operations).

FAR EAST LAND FORCES.—Colonel (temporary Brigadier) J. R. C. Hamilton, C.B.E., D.S.O., appointed Chief of Staff, Headquarters, Malaya Command, with the temporary rank of Major-General (April, 1955).

Colonel (temporary Brigadier) R. N. Anderson, C.B.E., D.S.O., appointed G.O.C., 17th Gurkha Division, with the temporary rank of Major-General (May, 1955).

PROMOTIONS

Lieut.-General.—Temporary Lieut.-General to be Lieut.-General :—R. A. Hull, C.B., D.S.O. (29th September, 1954).

Major-Generals.—Temporary Major-Generals or Brigadiers to be Major-Generals :—W. S. Beddall, C.B., O.B.E. (16th August, 1954); A. T. de Rhe Philipe, C.B., O.B.E. (21st August, 1954); W. H. Lambert, C.B., C.B.E. (20th September, 1954); B. P. Hughes, C.B.E., A.D.C. (29th September, 1954); F. D. Moore, C.B.E. (29th September, 1954); B. Daunt, C.B.E., D.S.O. (29th November, 1954); F. J. O'Meara, M.D., F.R.C.P.I. (8th January, 1955).

Brigadiers or Colonels to be temporary Major-Generals.—F. J. O'Meara, M.D., F.R.C.P.I. (11th July, 1954); W. A. D. Drummond, C.B., C.B.E., F.R.C.S. (3rd October, 1954); W. G. Roe, C.B.E., A.D.C., A.M.I.Mech.E. (4th December, 1954); R. Younger, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C. (21st December, 1954); R. N. H. C. Bray, C.B.E., D.S.O. (16th December, 1954).

RETIREMENTS

The following General Officers have retired :—Major-General G. W. E. Heath, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C. (29th November, 1954); Major-General R. C. Cruddas, C.B., D.S.O. (6th January, 1955); Major-General J. C. Collins, C.B., C.B.E., Q.H.S. (8th January, 1955); Major-General Sir T. John W. Winterton, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., C.B.E. (12th January, 1955).

ABOLITION OF ANTI-AIRCRAFT COMMAND

It was announced by the Minister of Defence, Mr. Harold Macmillan, in the House of Commons on 1st December that the development of nuclear weapons and long-range aircraft had reduced the effectiveness of anti-aircraft defence, and that the Government had therefore decided that it was no longer justified in continuing to spend money and to use manpower on the present scale for this type of defence. Heavy reductions would therefore be put into effect involving the abolition of the Anti-Aircraft Command structure.

Some heavy and light A.A. regiments would be retained for the defence of the field forces and to protect certain vital targets at home and abroad, and in the United Kingdom these regiments would come under the normal Home Command organization. Regular

units which became redundant would be either converted to different roles or abolished, the men being absorbed elsewhere in the Regular Army. A number of Territorial Army units would be amalgamated or disbanded and their personnel distributed elsewhere.

STRATEGIC RESERVE AND REORGANIZATION OF MANPOWER

The Minister of Defence also announced in the House of Commons on 1st December that since 1950 steps had been taken to bring about a rapid increase in the number of Army units and formations to meet the heavy pressure of the United Kingdom's growing commitments, including the formation in 1952 of 2nd battalions of seven infantry regiments, recruitment to which had been most successful.

The strength of the Army could now be expected to fall, owing to the fact that many of the National Service men called up in the larger intake of 1952, as well as some Regular soldiers, would be leaving the Army. The Government hoped to bring home a number of units and formations from overseas and create a strategic reserve, and when this had been done it could contemplate reorganization to enable the available manpower to be used more efficiently. As part of this reorganization, the 2nd battalions formed in 1952 would be disbanded during the next two or three years. The regiments involved are The Green Howards, The Lancashire Fusiliers, The Royal Welch Fusiliers, The Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, The Black Watch (Royal Highland Regiment), The Sherwood Foresters (Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Regiment), and The Durham Light Infantry.

RETURN OF 3RD INFANTRY DIVISION

Units of the 3rd Infantry Division, which are gradually coming home from the Middle East, are being located on arrival in the Eastern Command area, with Divisional Headquarters at Colchester. It is unlikely that the last of the three brigades to return will arrive before the Spring of 1956.

PARACHUTISTS FOR MALAYA

The War Office announced on 8th January that it had been decided that a fourth squadron for service with the 22nd Special Air Service Regiment in Malaya is to be provided by The Parachute Regiment. In order to avoid compulsory posting and to obviate the necessity for further secondment of personnel serving in The Parachute Regiment, this squadron, to be known as The Independent Squadron, The Parachute Regiment, will consist of volunteers from the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Battalions of the Regiment. It will exist for the duration of the emergency in Malaya, and the tour of duty for personnel will be two years excluding travelling time.

BREVET PROMOTION TO LIEUT.-COLONEL

The names of 27 officers who have been promoted to the rank of Brevet Lieut.-Colonel with effect from 1st July, 1954, were published on 3rd December in the Supplement of *The London Gazette* of 30th November, 1954.

REGULAR ARMY RECRUITING

The Regular Army recruiting statistics for December show that the total number of enlistments from civil life during the month were 1,892 men and 76 boys compared with 2,860 and 172 in October and 2,499 and 111 in November. The figures for re-enlistments were 3 from Short Service (October, 4; November, 3) and 368 from National Service (October, 492; November, 440).

MISCELLANEOUS

TOUR OF THE C.I.G.S.—Field-Marshal Sir John Harding, Chief of the Imperial General Staff, left London by air on 15th November for visits to Middle East Land Forces, Jordan, Iraq, Pakistan, and India. He returned to London on 10th December.

BATTLE HONOURS, 1939-45 WAR.—The War Office announced on 28th October that a committee has been set up under the chairmanship of General Sir John Crocker to draw up recommendations to govern the award of Battle Honours for the 1939-45 War. As the work of the Battles Nomenclature Committee, on which that of this Battle Honours Committee is partly dependent, is unlikely to be concluded much earlier, it is probable that the Army Council's Instructions on the nature of awards, qualifications required, and the methods of claim by regiments will not be issued before mid-Summer, 1955.

THE GLOUCESTERSHIRE REGIMENT.—The War Office announced on 6th January that H.M. The Queen has approved that the 1st Battalion, The Gloucestershire Regiment, may wear on 21st March ('Back Badge Day') each year a 'streamer' on the pike of the Regimental Colour, this being the emblem of the United States Presidential Citation awarded to the Battalion for distinguished service at Solma-ri, Korea. (When a regiment of the United States is awarded a Presidential Citation, the 'streamer' which accompanies this distinction is fixed permanently to the Regimental Colour.)

LONDON HOME GUARD CHURCH PARADE.—The annual Church Parade of the 11th County of London Home Guard Battalion took place on Sunday, 31st October. It included detachments from the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th County of London Battalions which form No. 1 Sector, London District Home Guard.

On Sunday, 7th November, the Battalion, in conjunction with others, furnished the Home Guard Detachment at the Cenotaph Ceremony, and also provided the Guard of Honour at the Tomb of the Unknown Warrior during the Remembrance Day services.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE CENTENARY SERVICE.—H.R.H. the Princess Margaret, Colonel-in-Chief, Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps, attended the Commemorative Service at Westminster Abbey on 4th September, on the occasion of the Florence Nightingale Centenary. Two representatives from each of the 61 regiments which took part in the Crimean campaign were invited to the Abbey. Approximately 250 members of Q.A.R.A.N.C. paraded in Waterloo Place with a detachment of 50 R.A.M.C. and the R.A.M.C. band, and a wreath was laid at the statue of Florence Nightingale by Brigadier Dame Helen S. Gillespie, Matron-in-Chief and Director of Army Nursing Services.

DOMINIONS AND COLONIES

CANADA

H.M. QUEEN ELIZABETH THE QUEEN MOTHER.—On the arrival of Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother at Ottawa on 12th November, the Guard of Honour was provided by The Black Watch (Royal Highland Regiment) of Canada and a 21-gun artillery salute was fired. These ceremonials were repeated on 17th November when Her Majesty left Ottawa.

APPOINTMENTS.—Major-General M. L. Brennan, O.B.E., C.D., has become Adjutant-General of the Canadian Army, succeeding Major-General W. H. S. Macklin, C.B.E., C.D., who has retired.

Brigadier F. A. Clift, D.S.O., E.D., has been appointed Director-General of Army Personnel.

Brigadier G. Kitching, C.B.E., D.S.O., C.D., has been appointed Commander, British Columbia Area.

Colonel R. Rowley, D.S.O., E.D., has become Commander, 2nd Canadian Infantry Brigade, with the acting rank of Brigadier.

Colonel D. C. Cameron, D.S.O., E.D., has been appointed Commander, 25th Canadian Infantry Brigade, with the acting rank of Brigadier.

SUMMER CAMPS.—A total of 16,593 Militia troops, including 3,822 officers, attended Summer training camps at 18 centres across Canada in 1954. This total was an increase of more than 2,000 over 1953, and nearly 3,000 over 1952.

MILITARY EQUIPMENT SENT TO EUROPE.—Shipments sent to the armies of N.A.T.O. countries in Europe between November, 1954, and January, 1955, under the terms of the mutual aid agreement, included guns, artillery equipment, and ammunition; rifle spare parts and ammunition; electronic equipment; and vehicle trailers and spare parts.

AUSTRALIA

NEW YEAR HONOURS.—The following were included in the New Year Honours List :—

C.B.—Major-General (honorary Lieut.-General) V. C. Secombe, C.B.E. (now retired).

Royal Red Cross, First Class.—Lieut.-Colonel (honorary Colonel) Ethel J. Bowe, A.R.R.C., Matron-in-Chief, Royal Australian Army Nursing Corps.

APPOINTMENTS.—Major-General R. Bierwirth, C.B.E., became C-in-C., British Commonwealth Forces, Korea, on 26th October, with the temporary rank of Lieut.-General.

Brigadier L. G. H. Dyke, C.B.E., D.S.O., has become G.O.C., Western Command, and has been promoted to the rank of Major-General.

ARMY ESTIMATES.—In asking the Federal Parliament's approval for the Army Estimates for the current financial year at £A72,185,000, the Minister for the Army, Mr. Joseph Francis, said that the capital expenditure on arms, armaments, ammunition, mechanization, and equipment generally, including reserve equipment for mobilization, would reach this year the high level of £A18,402,000—an increase of £A9,600,000 on last year's provision. Heavy commitments for new vehicles this year, amounting to £A4,494,000, would further reduce the work load of the maintenance organization with a consequent saving in expenditure. During the year, further anti-tank weapons also would be procured.

The proposed expenditure of £A4,273,000 on capital works, after providing for current projects, would permit continuation of the construction programme for the major accommodation needs of the Army.

3RD BATTALION, ROYAL AUSTRALIAN REGIMENT.—After nine years' service overseas, the 3rd Battalion, Royal Australian Regiment, has been withdrawn from Korea and brought back to Australia. The Battalion landed in Japan on 13th February, 1946. It was the first Australian unit to take part in the Korean War, and remained in the line from 28th September, 1950.

REINTRODUCTION OF THREE-YEAR ENGAGEMENT.—Reintroduction of a three-year period of engagement in the Regular Army Special Reserve (instead of six years) has been authorized by the Australian Government. The Minister for the Army, Mr. Joseph Francis, in announcing the fact, said that the number of recruits now being enrolled was not enough to maintain the Regular Army at a strength sufficient to meet existing commitments. It was considered that many potential recruits were being deterred from enlisting because they were not prepared to commit themselves initially to the six-year term of engagement. A soldier who enlisted for the shorter three-year period could extend his service and make the Army a career if he found that the life appealed to him.

FOREIGN

BELGIUM

ARMY CHIEF OF STAFF

Lieut.-General Piron, who has been appointed President of the Supreme Council for the Belgian Armed Forces (see General Service Notes), has been succeeded as Army Chief of Staff by Lieut.-General Marchau.

UNITED STATES

FAR EAST LAND FORCES.—General John E. Hull, C-in-C., Far East and U.N. Commands, relinquished command of the Far East Land Forces to General Maxwell D. Taylor on 20th November. General Taylor, who commanded the Eighth Army in Korea, had combined his staff with the headquarters of the armed forces in the Far East near Tokyo, leaving an advanced headquarters of the Eighth Army at Seoul in Korea, where only two U.S. army divisions and one Marine Corps division remain after the withdrawal of the 24th Infantry Division to Japan in November. These changes were officially stated to be part of the regrouping of U.S. forces to improve the strategic position in the Pacific.

CONTINENTAL ARMY COMMAND.—It was announced on 16th October by the U.S. War Department that a new Continental Army Command would shortly be created with responsibility for the training of forces and for all ground defences in the United States. The Commander would be General J. E. Dahlquist, to whom in future the six Continental Army Commanders would report instead of to the Army Chief of Staff, General Ridgway. The Secretary of the Army, Mr. Stevens, said that the establishment of the new command was part of a wide reorganization of the Army's structure, and that the purpose of the change was to provide for a more effective direction of the armies in America, to reduce the number of commanders reporting directly to the Chief of Staff, and to decentralize the operation of the six armies and the Military District of Washington from the Army Department.

ABOLITION OF ALL-NEGRO UNITS IN THE U.S. ARMY.—It was reported by the Defence Department on 31st October that the abolition of all-Negro units in the U.S. Army had been completed, and that the integration of White and Negro units had resulted in an increase in overall combat effectiveness, together with economies in manpower, matériel, and money.

NOTICE

BERTRAND STEWART PRIZE ESSAY COMPETITION

The subject for the 1955 competition is as follows :—

"There has of recent years been increasing difficulty in finding men of the right quality who are prepared to take up a career in the Regular forces, including candidates for commissions. It is, moreover, doubtful whether improved emoluments and conditions of service will of themselves overcome this difficulty. Discuss the reasons for this state of affairs and suggest what could be done to solve the problem both inside and outside the Services."

Copies of the rules for this competition can be obtained from the Editor of *The Army Quarterly*, c/o W. Clowes & Sons, Ltd., Little New Street, London, E.C.4.

AIR NOTES

GREAT BRITAIN

H.M. THE QUEEN

PRESENTATION BY THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH.—On 10th November, at Wembley, the Duke of Edinburgh presented the Britannia Shield to the French boxing team who were the winners of the 1954 competition between the air forces of the eight Allied nations of the 1939-45 War which competed.

THE DUCHESS OF GLOUCESTER VISITS SIGNAL GROUP.—On 12th November, the Duchess of Gloucester visited No. 90 Signal Group at Medenham.

NEW YEAR HONOURS

The following were included in the New Year Honours List :—

G.C.B.—Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur P. M. Sanders, *K.C.B.*, *K.B.E.*, *A.D.C.*

K.C.B.—Air Marshal Sir Harry Broadhurst, *K.B.E.*, *C.B.*, *D.S.O.*, *D.F.C.*, *A.F.C.*

C.B.—Air Vice-Marshal C. L. M. Brown, *O.B.E.* ; Air Vice-Marshal W. G. Cheshire, *C.B.E.* ; Air Vice-Marshal A. F. Hutton, *C.B.E.*, *D.F.C.* ; Acting Air Vice-Marshal L. T. Pankhurst, *C.B.E.* ; Air Commodore C. G. Lott, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.*, *D.F.C.* ; Air Commodore W. C. Sheen, *D.S.O.*, *O.B.E.* ; Acting Air Commodore D. R. Evans, *C.B.E.*, *D.F.C.*

D.B.E.—Air Commandant R. M. Whyte, *R.R.C.*, *Q.H.N.S.*, Princess Mary's Royal Air Force Nursing Service ; Air Commandant N. M. Salmon, *O.B.E.*, *A.D.C.*, Women's Royal Air Force.

K.B.E.—Acting Air Marshal L. G. Harvey, *C.B.*

APPOINTMENTS

FAR EAST AIR FORCE.—Air Vice-Marshal F. J. Fressanges, *C.B.*, appointed Commander-in-Chief, Far East Air Force, with the acting rank of Air Marshal (12th November, 1954).

MALAYA.—Air Commodore W. H. Kyle, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *D.S.O.*, *D.F.C.*, *A.D.C.*, appointed Air Officer Commanding, Malaya (February, 1955).

PROMOTIONS

Air Vice-Marshals (acting Air Marshals) to be Air Marshals.—F. J. Fressanges, *C.B.* ; T. G. Pike, *C.B.*, *C.B.E.*, *D.F.C.* (1st January, 1955).

Air Vice-Marshal to be acting Air Marshal.—L. Darvall, *C.B.*, *M.C.* (1st July, 1954).

Air Commodores (acting Air Vice-Marshals) to be Air Vice-Marshals.—J. G. W. Weston, *C.B.*, *O.B.E.* ; L. W. C. Bower, *C.B.*, *D.S.O.*, *D.F.C.* ; A. F. Hutton, *C.B.E.*, *D.F.C.*, *B.A.*, *D.I.C.*, *M.I.Mech.E.* (1st January, 1955).

Air Commodores to be Air Vice-Marshals.—J. Cox, *O.B.E.*, *D.F.C.* ; E. M. F. Grundy, *O.B.E.* ; A. D. Selway, *C.B.*, *D.F.C.* ; A. Earle, *C.B.E.* ; J. C. Neely, *C.B.E.*, *D.M.*, *B.Ch.*, *M.R.C.S.*, *L.R.C.P.*, *D.O.M.S.*, *D.O.(Oxon.)*, *Q.H.S.* (1st January, 1955).

Air Commodore to be acting Air Vice-Marshal.—P. S. Blockey, *C.B.E.*, *B.A.* (15th November, 1954).

OPERATIONS

SQUADRON RETURNS FROM KENYA

After six months of operational duty against the Mau Mau in Kenya, the Lincolns of No. 214 Squadron, R.A.F. Bomber Command, have recently returned to their base in

England and have been relieved by No. 49 Squadron. During their last strike, the Squadron carried the Commander-in-Chief of the Middle East Air Force, Air Marshal Sir Claude Pelly, as an observer. The Squadron's average of 250 strikes per month against targets found by photographic reconnaissance Meteors played a large part in breaking up Mau Mau gangs.

FLIGHTS

JET AIRCRAFT OVER NORTH POLE

Aries IV, the long-range Canberra of the Royal Air Force Flying College, Manby, recently made the first R.A.F. jet flight over the Geographical North Pole during survey flights carried out from northern Norway. The aircraft reached a height of 10 miles and covered 3,026 miles in seven hours for the round trip. The minimum temperature encountered was -76°F .

Taking off from Bardufoss, north of Narvik, Norway (69° North), the aircraft was climbed steeply to 40,000 feet and from there to the Pole 'cruise climbed' to a height of nine miles at the Pole and to 52,000 feet on the return leg, being let down at 3,000 feet a minute to a height of 20,000 feet over Bodo, where it landed.

TRAINING

NEW JET TRAINER NOW IN SERVICE

The world's most powerful jet trainer aircraft, the English Electric Canberra T.4, is now in service with Bomber Command.

This new trainer version of the famous Canberra bomber is in use at No. 231 Operational Conversion Unit, Bassingbourn, which trains jet bomber crews for the R.A.F., and also at other Canberra stations for instrument flying and refresher training.

The Canberra T.4 is fitted with dual controls for the instructor and pupil, who are seated side by side, and has a single navigator's seat behind. (In the Canberra B.2 bomber there is one pilot's seat and a single set of controls, and positions for two navigators behind.) The T.4 is powered by two Rolls-Royce Avon turbo-jets, the power of which is normally measured in static thrust, but may be said to produce 24,000 h.p. The comparable advanced trainer aircraft of 10 years ago, the D.H. Mosquito, produced 2,560 h.p.

The introduction of the Canberra T.4 has improved and simplified the conversion training of Canberra pilots, who may be either new entrants to the R.A.F. who have just completed their course at a Flying Training School, or experienced pilots with several thousand flying hours who are new to jet bombers.

ORGANIZATION

R.A.F. SUNDERLANDS LEAVE KOREA.—The last two Sunderland flying boat squadrons, Nos. 205 and 209, have now flown back to the Far East Flying Boat Base at Seletar, Singapore.

NEW MIDDLE EAST AIR FORCE HEADQUARTERS.—Air Marshal Sir Claude B. R. Pelly, the Commander-in-Chief of the Middle East Air Force, was installed in his new Headquarters at Nicosia, Cyprus, on 3rd December.

MORE HELICOPTERS FOR MALAYA.—A number of Bristol Sycamore helicopters have arrived in Singapore to reinforce the two squadrons of S-51s and S-55s already in Malaya.

NEW GROUND SECTION.—The R.A.F. is to form a ground section of its General Duties (flying) Branch to make the best use of the flying experience of aircrew members between flying tours and on permanent withdrawal from flying duties. Among the duties of this new section will be air traffic control, fighter control (including radar supervision), photography and photographic interpretation, and balloons.

MATERIEL

FIGHTER POSITION.—Mr. G. Ward, Under Secretary for Air, has expressed the disappointment felt by himself and by the Air Minister, Lord de L'Isle and Dudley, over the lag in fighter production. With the Swift, aerodynamic difficulties had been encountered, and it could not be said with certainty that these would be overcome in all the versions under development. Production of Hunters fell badly behind, but was catching up and three squadrons had been equipped. When modifications had been made, this aircraft would be at least up to the standard of the American Sabre and the Russian MIG.

MIDGE BREAKS BARRIER.—It was disclosed recently that the Folland Midge, a lower-powered prototype for the Gnat, has dived at supersonic speed twice in a day during flight trials from Chilbolton airfield, near Winchester.

GUIDED MISSILES.—Britain is developing rocket-propelled guided missiles capable of intercepting enemy bombers travelling at 1,000 miles an hour at heights of up to 60,000 feet. Such missiles will be controlled by electronic computers on the ground and will burn new forms of solid fuel. It must be expected that bombers capable of travelling at these heights and speeds would be developed within the next 10 years, Mr. G. W. H. Gardner, Director General of Technical Development (Air), Ministry of Supply, declared in London on 20th November, and guided missiles would have to be used to intercept them.

U.S. MISSION IN BRITAIN.—Between 22nd and 24th September, the most powerful American procurement and production mission that has yet visited the United Kingdom made a flying tour of several British aircraft plants. The mission was led by Mr. Roger Lewis, the U.S. Assistant Secretary of the Air Force (Matériel), and included a number of development, procurement, and production agency officers, together with several U.S.A.F. generals. Transport was provided by a U.S.A.F. Dakota. A number of Hawker Siddeley Group establishments were visited, including Hawkers (Kingston and Dunsfold), Brockworth Engineering, Glosters (Moreton Valence), and Avros at Chadderton.

RESERVES

NEW HONORARY AIR COMMODORE.—Vice-Admiral The Mackintosh of Mackintosh, C.B., D.S.O., D.S.C., has been appointed Honorary Air Commodore of No. 3510 (County of Inverness) Fighter Control Unit, R.Aux.A.F. (17th December, 1954).

HACK TROPHY.—Scottish University Air Squadrons gained first, second, and third places in this annual contest. Seventeen squadrons took part in England, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The competition consists of flying tests for a number of selected officer cadets of each squadron and a written examination for all squadron members.

MISCELLANEOUS

THE STANDARD.—The Queen has approved the award of THE STANDARD to the following squadrons in recognition of their completion on 1st April, 1954, of 25 or more years of existence in the Royal Air Force, Royal Auxiliary Air Force, and Royal Flying Corps:—No. 57 Squadron and No. 504 (City of Nottingham) Squadron, Royal Auxiliary Air Force.

NO. 27 SQUADRON RECEIVES STANDARD.—Air Vice-Marshal A. E. Borton presented THE STANDARD to No. 27 Squadron at Scampton on 7th January. Air Vice-Marshal Borton commanded the squadron when it first went to France in 1916.

R.A.F. HIMALAYAN EXPEDITION.—The Royal Air Force Mountaineering Association hopes to send an expedition composed of serving members of the R.A.F. to the Himalayas in the early Summer of 1955. Permission has been requested to enter the north-eastern corner of the Indian Punjab, where the intention is to explore the glacier system of the Kulu-Lahul watershed and the surrounding area, first penetrated by Gunther and Kempe

in 1953 and 1954. The region contains some 20 peaks of over 20,000 feet, as yet unclimbed, and it is hoped to ascend one or two of these during the course of a photographic survey which the R.A.F. expedition will undertake.

THE WHITTLE PRIZE.—Sir Frank Whittle, the jet pioneer, has offered a prize which will be competed for annually at the R.A.F. Technical College, Henlow. The prize will be given for the winning essay on a subject dealing with the recent advance in radio, electrical, and electronic equipment for aircraft.

R.A.F. BADGE AMENDED.—By command of The Queen, the Tudor Crown is being replaced by St. Edward's Crown in all designs embodying a representation of the Crown. Consequently, a new official badge has been approved for the Royal Air Force, which will be introduced when suitable opportunities occur.

L. G. GROVES MEMORIAL PRIZES AND AWARD.—The L. G. Groves Memorial Prizes and Award, given annually from a grant of money placed at the disposal of the Air Ministry in 1946 by Major Keith Groves, J.P., and Mrs. Groves, of Maughold, Isle of Man, in memory of their son, Sergeant Louis Grimble Groves, R.A.F.V.R., a meteorological observer, who lost his life on a weather flight in 1945, were awarded in 1954 as follows:—

Prize for Aircraft Safety—Squadron Leader W. H. Forster, A.F.C., R.A.F. Station, Prestwick.

Prize for Meteorology—Mr. G. A. Corby, B.Sc., Principal Scientific Officer, Meteorological Office, Dunstable.

Award for Meteorological Air Observers—Sergeant J. A. McCubbin, R.A.F. Station, Aldergrove, Northern Ireland.

THE CURTIS MEMORIAL PRIZE.—The Curtis Memorial Prize has been awarded to Sergeant A. G. Carmichael, on the results of the General Certificate of Education examination held in July, 1954.

FIRST AWARD OF C. P. ROBERTSON TROPHY.—This trophy which is now awarded annually for the best interpretation of the R.A.F. to the public, was in November presented by Lord Willoughby de Broke, Chairman of the Air Public Relations Association, to Mr. Denis Richards and Dr. H. St. George Saunders, widow of Mr. Hilary St. George Saunders. It was awarded for their writing of the three volume *History of the Royal Air Force, 1939-45*.

DOMINIONS AND COLONIES

CANADA

SENIOR OFFICERS' APPOINTMENTS.—Air Commodore L. E. Wray, O.B.E., A.F.C., C.D., was appointed to command the R.C.A.F.'s Air Defence Command at St. Hubert, P.Q., on 1st January. He was promoted to Air Vice-Marshal from that date.

In December, Air Commodore K. L. B. Hodson, O.B.E., D.F.C., was appointed Commandant of the R.C.A.F. Staff College, Toronto.

MOVE OF NO. 1 FIGHTER WING.—No. 1 Fighter Wing has commenced its move from R.A.F. Station North Luffenham to its new N.A.T.O. base at Marville in France. The move will be completed in March when North Luffenham will be handed back to the Royal Air Force.

AUSTRALIA

H.M. THE QUEEN.—Group Captain F. Headlam, O.B.E., Royal Australian Air Force, and Group Captain J. L. Waddy, D.F.C., Australian Citizen Air Forces, appointed Aides-de-Camp to The Queen (21st October, 1954).

NEW YEAR HONOURS.—The following officer was included in the New Year Honours List:—

K.B.E.—Air Marshal J. P. J. McCauley, C.B., C.B.E., R.A.A.F.

INCREASING STRENGTH OF THE R.A.A.F.—During the current financial year the strength of the permanent force, R.A.A.F., is being increased from 14,900 to 16,907 according to the defence programme announced by the Minister for Defence. The programme provides also for important improvements in equipment and general service efficiency. In consequence of the R.A.A.F.'s new sea responsibilities, there is to be an increase in the size of the maritime reconnaissance element. For home defence, provision is made for a wing of two maritime reconnaissance squadrons, a target-towing squadron, and five Citizen Air Force squadrons. The air expeditionary force will consist of a wing of three bomber squadrons, a wing of three fighter squadrons, and a wing of two transport squadrons. Plans are being made also for the ultimate replacement of the Australian-built Sabre jet fighters and the Canberra jet bombers by more modern aircraft.

AIR STAFF CHIEF VISITS THE FAR EAST.—Air Marshal J. P. J. McCauley, Chief of the Air Staff, left Sydney by air in October on a Far East tour for talks with British and U.S. Far East commanders. His itinerary included visits to Japan, Korea, Okinawa, the Philippines, and Guam, with top-level talks at Far East Air Force Headquarters in Tokyo and at Fifth Air Force Headquarters in Nagoya. He arrived back in Australia early in November.

R.A.A.F. LEAVES MALTA.—After two and a half years' service in Malta, No. 78 Wing, R.A.A.F., is on its way back to Australia. The departure of the Wing was preceded by a farewell ceremony which was attended by H.E. The Governor of Malta, Sir Robert Laycock, and the Air Member for Supply and Organization, Air Marshal Sir Donald Hardman, representing the Air Council.

AUSTRALIAN RECORD.—Three R.A.A.F. jet bombers, flying in formation, established a record on 24th November for a flight between Adelaide and Brisbane. The three aircraft covered the 1,000 miles in one hour 51 minutes, an average of about 540 m.p.h.

FOREIGN FRANCE

POLICY OF NEW AIR MINISTER.—On 7th October, France's new Secretary of State for Air, M. Catroux, outlined his future programme in an address at the French Aero Club. Among the salient points made were the following :—

(a) Criticism of the policy errors of his predecessors, including the failure to choose equipment in due time, the failure to adopt national defence programmes adapted to the country's economic resources, and the lack of sufficient co-ordination between the policies of the air transport companies and the design and development programmes for commercial transports.

(b) France is in no way behind her Allies in the design and development of piloted vertical take-off aircraft.

(c) Bomber projects now under development will enable France to engage in strategic counter-attack, and M. Catroux attributes great importance to the development of this weapon as well as to the development of long-range ground-to-ground missiles.

(d) France has decided to begin preliminary design and development studies towards the construction of nuclear power plants for aircraft.

(e) Rejuvenation of the methods of estimating equipment requirements, together with greater elasticity in their means of realization, is necessary.

(f) The recently appointed Production Committee is designed to determine ways and means of nationalizing manufacturing methods and lowering production costs.

(g) The new Office for Organization and Methods is to be responsible for overhauling the armed Services and research into strategic and tactical developments, and is to engage in the search for foreign buyers.

(h) In the field of aircraft exports France will, in future, attempt to integrate the foreign marketing possibilities in the light of the national procurement programmes and to ensure that flying equipment is not sold at the cost of depleting France's own military potential.

MYSTÈRE PRODUCTION.—The Mystère II and IVA fighters are now coming out in numbers and the first French squadron to be equipped with Mystère IIs will be formed at the end of this year. Test flights on the Mystère IVN two-seat, all-weather fighter are continuing and the production of the pre-series batch of 16 Mystère IVBs is under way, the first IVB being scheduled to fly towards the end of the year.

200 TAYS BUILT IN FRANCE.—The Hispano Suiza Tay 250-A turbo-jets which power the Mystère IVA have undergone 5,800 test hours, including 1,000 research hours, 3,000 endurance hours, and 1,800 hours of flight. Almost 200 of these turbo-jets have been completed. It is expected that the Tay will give service equivalent to that given by the Nene.

GERMANY

THE NEW LUFTWAFFE

A German air force of 1,300 aircraft will be in being in three years' time. This will be a sequel to the ratification of the Paris agreements, according to General Alfred M. Gruenther, Supreme Allied Commander, Europe, speaking at a luncheon given at the Mansion House, London, by the Air League of the British Empire on 25th October. The aircraft will be interceptors and fighter-bombers, but General Gruenther did not specify the types that will be used or who will make them. Presumably, it is intended that the German air force shall absorb some of the American over-production of these machines; later, however, there seems to be a chance that Germany may re-enter the field of military aircraft design and production.

ITALY

NEW CHIEF OF THE AIR STAFF

General Ferdinando Raffaelli was appointed Chief of Staff of the Italian Air Force on 3rd November in succession to General Urbani, who was retiring.

JAPAN

AIR SELF DEFENCE FORCE

The Japanese Air Self Defence Force was formed in July, 1954. The Japanese hope that by 1959 it will have become the most powerful non-Communist air force in the Far East, having some 1,300 aircraft, including F.86 Sabre jets and twin-jet light-bombers. At present these plans appear to be something in the nature of a pipe-dream. The Japanese must depend largely upon United States assistance and, as a consequence, upon United States policy.

A start has been made, however, and in the first year some 6,500 personnel will be in air force service. Thirty-five Japanese ex-naval and ex-army pilots are at present undergoing a course to fit them as instructors in jet flying for future J.A.S.D.F. pilots. They completed in December a refresher course on T.6 (Harvards) at Matsushima (Honshu) and commenced the next phase on Lockheed T.33 (jet trainer) aircraft at Tsuki (Kyushu) in January. The pilots who will complete the course in May next are being instructed by a U.S.A.F. training squadron.

NETHERLANDS

ALL-WEATHER FIGHTERS

The Royal Netherlands Air Force announced on 18th October that the Netherlands Government are to buy 28 night-fighters and that the U.S.A. will give Holland another 28 under the joint procurement programme. All are expected to be F-86D Sabres, according to a R.N.A.F. spokesman.

SWEDEN**SWEDISH AIR FORCE EXPANSION**

A ten-year programme to modernize Sweden's defences calls for a bigger air force and smaller army and navy. Under this programme, published in Stockholm on 2nd November, yearly defence expenditure will rise from about £135,000,000 to £185,000,000. Air force fighter strength will be increased by 18 per cent. and light-bomber strength by 50 per cent. The total number of warplanes will go up by 22 per cent.

SWITZERLAND**SWISS VENOMS**

An agreement signed between the Swiss Government and the de Havilland Aircraft Company in January, 1951, covered the production under licence of Venom airframes and Ghost engines. The Swiss Air Force had already put some 75 Vampires into service with ground-attack squadrons, and the Venom agreement was designed to provide a replacement, although numbers were not specified. Now, some 60 Ghosts have been produced by Swiss companies, and a 150-hour type test was successfully completed early last year.

UNITED STATES

TACTICAL AIR COMMAND (U.S.A.F.) ROTATION TO EUROPE.—Headquarters, U.S.A.F., has announced that the Air Forces Tactical Air Command will begin rotation of fighter-bomber and troop-carrier units to U.S.A.F. bases in France this Autumn. The fighter-bomber units are equipped with North American F.86F Sabres, and the troop-carrier units will be Fairchild C.119 Flying Boxcar aircraft. While in the European theatre, the squadrons will be under the operational control of U.S.A.F.E.

MARTIN R.B.57s TO JOIN THE U.S. 12TH AIR FORCE.—The U.S.A.F. at Spangdahlem, Germany, has announced that two reconnaissance wings in Europe will soon be equipped with Martin R.B.57 (Canberra) aircraft.

UNITS FOR EUROPE.—U.S.A.F. (Europe) Headquarters, Wiesbaden, has announced that advance elements of two fighter-bomber wings have arrived in Europe, forming part of American N.A.T.O. commitments. The new wings will be based on two airfields in France. Both of these airfields are still under construction, and pending their completion the tactical squadrons of these wings will be deployed to the French Zone of Germany and to other French bases.

THE U.S.A.F. GROWS.—The U.S.A.F. strength on 30th November was 961,000. They will have an increase of 9,000 men by next June and a further 5,000 by June the following year.

THUNDERSTREAKS FOR BRITAIN.—It is reported that America is sending 650 m.p.h. Thunderstreaks, single-seat fighters, to bases in Britain. The aircraft has a radius of more than 1,000 miles, can be refuelled in flight, and has a ceiling of 45,000 feet. It is powered by a British-designed Sapphire turbo-jet, and armament includes machine-guns, 6,000 lb. of rockets, bombs, and fuel—which exceeds the payload of the 1939-45 War Flying Fortress.

B-52 AND 717 COSTS.—It is reported that, at a cost unofficially estimated at £1,250,000,000, a force of Boeing B-52 Stratofortress bombers is to be built up by the U.S.A.F. as 11 new wings—four more than previously announced. Additionally, there will be some 200 Boeing Stratotankers, representing an expenditure of another £286,000,000.

B-47 FLIES 21,000 MILES NON-STOP.—A Boeing B-47 was in the air more than 47 hours and covered 21,000 miles on a recent flight from the U.S. to England. When weather closed in at the Stratojet's destination, it shuttled backwards and forwards to North Africa for aerial refuelling while waiting for the weather to clear. The total fuel consumption was 75,000 gallons.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS

GENERAL

Arms and Tomorrow. By Ian Harvey, M.P. (W. Clowes and Sons.) 10s. 6d.

This volume, the third of *The Army Quarterly Series*, deals with atomic power. It is not a technical book, but "an attempt to fit atomic power into the defence picture." The opening chapter is devoted to a brief description of some of the processes by which atomic power emerges as a force, the destructive instruments which have been produced, and the effect on men and materials. The author quotes the six principles of protection laid down in the Home Office manual which bear a striking resemblance to those familiar in connection with defence against mustard gas.

The second chapter is concerned with economic aspects, the application of atomic weapons in war, and the training of troops. The author, who commanded a Territorial anti-aircraft regiment in the last war, also discusses the anti-aircraft defence of this Country, advances the opinion that it should be placed entirely in the hands of the R.A.F., and refers to the consequent effect on existing units. (The Government's decision on this matter has been announced since the publication of this book.) He rightly makes the point that war will not become a 'push-button' affair, but stresses the need for understanding and co-operation between the Services and scientists. He is clear that man remains the supreme instrument of war.

"Fortress Britain"—the third chapter—contains a well-argued plea for a new defence plan and a complete reorganization of the Civil Defence Service; a matter which the author believes "requires priority attention at this moment." The aim to be attained, he considers, is a *Fourth Arm of Defence*, fully represented on the Chiefs of Staff Committee, based on a full-time professional cadre, and capable of rapid expansion. The importance of mobile columns is emphasized.

Political considerations are discussed in the fourth and last chapter. The deduction is that national policy and strategy must, as always, go hand in hand.

Though the arrangement of the subject matter is not above reproach, this is a valuable little book containing much food for thought. There is no index.

Brassey's Annual. The Armed Forces Year-Book. Edited by Rear-Admiral H. G. Thursfield. (W. Clowes and Sons.) 63s.

Five years have now elapsed since 'Brassey's'—now in its 65th year of publication—was reconstituted. In 1950, the editor, Rear-Admiral Thursfield, introduced a change in the presentation of the Annual. The ship profiles and silhouettes and tables of statistical data, all of which are readily obtainable elsewhere, disappeared; and instead of continuing to chronicle and discuss matters of purely naval interest only, the scope of the Annual was widened to embrace all three fighting Services. At the same time the title was changed from *Brassey's Naval Annual* to *Brassey's Annual. The Armed Forces Year-Book*, and the editorial staff was augmented by a soldier and an airman.

The aim and policy of the editorial staff was, and is, to produce a balanced annual review of the progress in all three Services, emphasis being placed, not on one Service more than another, but upon their enhanced value when combined as a single defence team.

A slight re-arrangement in the form of presentation has been introduced in the current issue. In the first four issues of the Year-Book, the chapters on the affairs of each Service were grouped together into separate sections. This division, however, was thought to detract from the principal idea of a combined defence team, so, as is explained in the preface to this issue, the arrangement of the chapters has now been recast in order to remedy this possible defect. This alteration is all to the good.

There are 34 chapters, one more than last year. Apart from the 'hardy annuals', which are usually written by the same authors each year, the range of subjects is catholic.

Within the limits of a short review, it is not possible to refer to them in detail, but they are all interesting and informative. The Reference Section at the end of the book keeps the reader informed of the latest Command papers—Statement on Defence, Estimates, Pay and Pensions, N.A.T.O., etc.—at the time of going to press.

Most of the contributors provide only a single chapter, though this year Admiral Thursfield is responsible for four. In the first (The Defence Team) he again stresses the paramount necessity for joint co-operation between the three Services. The extravagant claims so frequently made by people who should know better, that the two older Services have had their day and that salvation is to be found only, or almost only, in the Royal Air Force, are shown at their true worth. He dispassionately points out that no one Service can do everything, but that when all three are intelligently combined, the result will be an efficient defence team. The final paragraph in this chapter, and particularly the concluding sentence, might well be taken to heart by all concerned.

Brassey's Annual is concerned chiefly with the armed forces. Last year there was a chapter on the fourth arm—Civil Defence. This increasingly important subject might perhaps become more of an annual feature, since the recent decision in some quarters to regard Civil Defence, in view of the invention of the H-bomb, as a waste of time and money is surely plain defeatism. The fact that this devastating weapon may be used by an enemy does not, however, preclude him from employing other less lethal devices, which can more easily be countered.

This is a particularly good number, and the reader gets full value for his money.

Commando Extraordinary. By Charles Foley. (Longmans.) 15s.

This book has been written with the definite purpose of propounding a hitherto rather unorthodox theory of war. It advocates and foretells offensive action by small groups of very highly trained specialists, who will penetrate deeply into enemy territory, sometimes even before the outbreak of war, to attack objectives vital to the strategy or political conduct of the war rather than objectives of merely tactical importance.

The author has presented his case by narrating in detail the exploits of Major Otto Skorzeny, who achieved international fame by his liberation of Mussolini from an 'impregnable' mountain prison, which exploit he followed up with many other astounding feats of a similar kind. This narrative is based on the personal testimony of Skorzeny himself, whom the author located with considerable difficulty, living quietly in Spain.

The theory is also backed by extracts from the history of our own S.A.S. forces, and by interviews and correspondence with David Stirling. There is also a foreword by Major-General Sir Robert Laycock, who was Chief of Combined Operations from 1943 to 1947.

All this provides an impressive and circumstantial background for the theoretical part of the book, which occupies about 30 pages of the total 226.

A large part of the book constitutes, therefore, a thriller which will be of absorbing interest to a wide circle of readers who enjoy true stories of adventure. Its style is fairly easily readable, though occasionally the author lapses into an American journalese which may render his real meaning rather obscure to British readers.

To military readers, however, the book's real value lies in the theory which it advances. Every serious student of future war should at least give himself the opportunity of forming his own opinion on this matter, after studying the evidence which the author has collected from the experts on both sides, and from the actual results achieved by these methods during the last war. If the enthusiasts make exaggerated claims sometimes, as enthusiasts for new things always do, at least one important lesson emerges from the argument—the enormously increased need for security precautions round V.I.P.s and other strategically useful objects.

Arising from Skorzeny's trial, certain views are expressed upon the evolution of international law, and on the customary conduct of war, which are disquieting. According to the modern doctrine everything in war is not only fair but *legal* as long as the enemy has done it. If this theory is upheld (and the equally dangerous one that a soldier's loyalty is conditional upon his belief in the justice of his country's cause and the moral correctness of his orders) the only way to escape trial as a war criminal will be to finish the war on the winning side!

God Save The Queen. By Percy A. Scholes. (Oxford University Press.) 30s.

When one springs to attention with the first strains of *God Save the Queen*—solemn without being pompous, moving without saccharine sentimentality—does it ever occur to one to wonder how it all came about? Who composed it? Who wrote the words? Why should this particular combination of lyric and music have been adopted, of all others, as the *national* anthem?

It was, of course, a happy accident. Like the celebrated *Topsy*, and *inter alia* as with so many other British institutions, it 'just grew'. For as Dr. Scholes clearly establishes, it was at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, on the night of 28th September, 1745, that three soloists and a male voice choir 'brought the house down' with a rendering, arranged by the celebrated Dr. Arne, of *God Save the King*. With Bonnie Prince Charlie already in Edinburgh at the head of a rebel army, London was aflame with a blend of alarm and patriotic fervour. All sorts of fearsome stories were abroad, and the public imagination, inflamed by intelligence of Johnny Cope's defeat, was only too ready for its emotions to be canalized into some fervent expression of loyalty to the Throne. Old Drury's *coup de théâtre* was exactly what it wanted; and the nightly repetition of the song's amazing success assured it of eventual acceptance as a veritable national anthem.

But the origins of both words and music go back to much earlier times; and Dr. Scholes has been at great pains to follow up the many lines of enquiry that diligent research has revealed. Their ramifications are infinite; all the way back through the Jacobite drinking songs to the late XVIIth Century ditty *Franklin Has Fled Away*. The key phrase, as such, was employed by the fleet assembled at Portsmouth in the August of 1544, when the watchword was 'God Save the King' and the countersign, 'Long to Reign Over Us'. Purcell and the appropriately-named Dr. John Bull contributed something towards the music; while lyrics in the respective reigns of Edward VI, Elizabeth I, James I, Charles I, and Charles II embodied more than a hint of the metre and sentiments to be found in the ultimate version sung at Drury Lane. It is even possible, although Dr. Scholes makes no mention of it, that the satirical song of the Protectorate period, *You Shall Have a King, but Whom?*, was not without its influence on the final combination of words and music.

Since the September of 1745, there have been many attempts to 'improve' the words of what, by universal acclaim, had become the National Anthem, and almost as many efforts to interpolate stanzas referring to current events or personalities. Nearly all the latter were painfully banal; although it was left to a certain J. Westwood, on the occasion of Queen Victoria's betrothal to Prince Albert to reach the nadir of bathos when he wrote:

O grant our earnest pray'r,
Smile on the Royal pair;
Bless Prince and Queen;
May Albert's name be dear
To every Briton's ear,
The Peasant and the Peer.
God save the Queen.

The National Anthem is singularly fortunate in possessing a metrical form which permits the interchange of the words 'King' and 'Queen'; a characteristic it shares

with that other famous XVIIIth Century ditty, *Over the Hills and Far Away*, which indeed at one time rivalled the more stately melody in popular favour. But *God Save the King* was not to be ousted; and with its enthusiastic adoption the craze for national anthems spread to every country under the sun whose amenities included a recognizable musical notation. All this and much more Dr. Scholes has elaborated in a scholarly, well-illustrated work, which the non-musical reader should experience as little difficulty in enjoying as his more tutored brethren.

The Heart of Africa. By Alexander Campbell. (Longmans.) 21s.

The author has lived in the Union of South Africa for the last 16 years—as a journalist he worked on two South African papers and since the Nationalist regime he has covered Africa for *Time and Life*. This book is a record of his experiences and impressions, not only of the Union but also of those African countries south of the Sahara which he has visited from time to time. During the course of his travels he interviewed the more important political leaders and other representatives in all walks of life and of various races. He describes his experiences with humour and an almost Churchillian economy of words. His impressions, one suspects, are sometimes slightly flavoured to suit the tastes of his employers and their readers. Thus, he never ceases to try and debunk the more flamboyant features of British colonial rule.

He is at his best and most informative on the subject of the Union. His sketches of the leading political figures from Smuts to Strydom are illuminating. Of the former he has this to say: "When he died he was hailed as a statesman, warrior, philosopher, and scientist. Subsequent workers in those fields have made the melancholy discovery that he did not contribute anything new, or, if he did, it was generally wrong. Smuts nevertheless was a great man. He could grasp other men's ideas and sweep them unblushingly into the broad stream of his own discourse. He was on intimate terms with other great men, who after intellectual contact with him came away bubbling over with new ideas, which they thought he had expressed. In fact, the ideas were their own, but they might never have conceived them if Smuts had not stimulated them."

The author is bitterly opposed to *apartheid* and makes no attempt to predict the future of the Union under a Nationalist regime—other than racial war.

From the Union we pass on to Bechuanaland where he went to report the affairs of the Bamangwatos following the banishment of Seretse Khama. In his opinion, Britain has not yet seen the end of this sorry incident. In South-West Africa he finds one of the few bright spots in the dark continent. American big business has taken over mineral rights in the northern half of the territory and opened up the prospects of a new deal for the natives.

In the Rhodesias and Nyasaland the problems of federation are unfolded through interviews with leading politicians and others. A brief glimpse at the Copper Belt serves merely to whet the reader's appetite for further information of this remote testing ground of Anglo-African relationships.

The author has travelled widely in Kenya since the Mau Mau rebellion started. He was present at the trial of Jomo Kenyatta. He places responsibility for the present troubles squarely on the shoulders of the land-grabbing white settlers and finds the situation somewhat more hopeful now that Whitehall has intervened. His description of Uganda is amusing, all too brief and inconclusive. In the Belgian Congo and in French Equatorial Africa the absence—in theory at any rate—of a colour bar and schemes of industrial expansion meet with his approval.

And so to the Gold Coast where he finds Sir Charles Arden-Clarke and Kwame Nkrumah working peacefully together towards self-government within the Commonwealth—and beyond.

Nigeria, in many ways the most important of African countries, and Tanganyika are unfortunately each dismissed with a bare chapter—likewise the Portuguese colonies of Mozambique and Angola.

Much of this book is thought-provoking; some of it is frightening; all of it is vastly interesting.

Under the Lash. A History of Corporal Punishment in the British Armed Forces. By Scott Claver. (Torchstream Books.) 21s.

From the Charter of Richard I (1189) until about the middle of the XVIIIth Century, both capital and secondary military punishments "were of a most ferocious and sanguinary description, such as dismemberment, maiming, or fracturing of the limbs, boring of the tongue with a red-hot iron, and burning or branding the cheeks and cutting off the left ear."

The author passes lightly over this period with a brief description of some of the instruments of torture and methods employed by the Provost-Marshal of the period. He concentrates on the period from about 1760, when flogging with the cat-o'-nine-tails in front of the ship's company or regiment became the commonest form of punishment, until 1868 when it was finally restricted. It will no doubt astonish many to learn that during this period sentences of 1,000 lashes and over were not uncommon. Despite the attendance of a surgeon, the recipients of these ferocious sentences were often invalidated for life and sometimes died. For over 100 pages the reader is given instance after instance of these punishments and fully informed of drum-head courts-martial and their sentences, running the gauntlet, and flogging round the fleet. No details of these sanguinary and daily events are spared.

The most interesting chapters are those dealing with the Royal Commission of 1835-36 appointed to consider the whole question of corporal punishment in the Army. Although in its findings the Commission did not recommend the abolition of flogging, it did draw attention to the manner of its infliction and suggested ways and means of improving the general conditions of service in the ranks as a means of improving discipline. In the long run, it called the attention of Parliament and the public to conditions in the Service, and the need for more humanitarian methods.

In 1868, Parliament confined flogging to serious offences committed on active service and on board ship. In 1881, it finally abolished all forms of corporal punishment for enlisted men.

The author has obviously carried out much research to collect the material for this book. He gives copious references and includes an extensive bibliography. Some of his material appears slightly irrelevant, namely a statement printed in 1821 concerning certain immoral practices on board H.M. ships. The book is illustrated. In the preface the author claims that it is possibly "the bloodiest book ever written." He may be right. In parts, it is also boring.

NAVAL

Flag 4. The Battle of Coastal Forces in the Mediterranean. By Dudley Pope. (William Kimber.) 16s.

This lively and inspiring account of the Light Coastal Forces in the Mediterranean during the 1939-45 War has appeared at an opportune moment. As the First Sea Lord, Admiral of the Fleet Sir Rhoderick McGrigor, points out in the foreword, it is never possible in an overall history of a world-wide war to devote much space to a detailed account of the multifarious activities of minor war vessels, and but for the enterprise of private authors the general public would remain in ignorance of them. When, as in this instance, the private author is granted facilities to inspect the original documents, he is able to supplement the official history by concentrating on the particular rather than on the general, and this Mr. Dudley Pope has now done.

With regard to maritime operations by Coastal Forces, it should not be forgotten that the Mediterranean theatre as a whole was far more extensive than that in Home Waters; operations were more varied in character and were conducted at much greater distances from the bases. Out of many events from which to choose, Mr. Pope has selected some typical exploits in order to show what the young officers in the 'mosquito' craft achieved in the different sub-areas where larger ships could not usually operate.

The book opens with a short historical review of sea power and goes on to describe the characteristics of the various types of vessels which comprised the Coastal Forces. In 1939, it should be noted, there were very few of these craft in existence and officers who had had any experience of them were no less scarce; it was not until 1942 that many were to be found in the Mediterranean.

Instead of a straight, chronological narrative embracing the whole of the Mediterranean, the operations in each of the main sub-areas are described over approximately six-monthly periods, in each case beginning with a review of the general situation. The when, why, and where are stated, and the narrative is often interspersed with signals or conversations by R/T between the chief participants. These personal touches enliven the narrative; and although some of them may be in part apocryphal, nevertheless they all ring true. Four statistical appendices give the reader a clear idea of what the Light Coastal Forces accomplished in terms of damage to the enemy. It was no mean effort. This method of presentation is well adapted to the needs of the general public, for whom the book is written, rather than for the historian.

The book is well illustrated by photographs; but as the end-plate maps are of necessity not all to the same scale, the addition of a scale of distance to each map would have helped the reader more fully to follow the narrative. One common latter-day error in terminology has crept in—the use of the term 'shrapnel' to denote H.E. shell. The index, which contains a few misprints, is not as complete as it might be; its value would have been enhanced by the inclusion of the more important places mentioned in the text, as well as of those M.T.Bs, M.G.Bs, etc., which come in for prominent notice.

Mr. Pope is to be congratulated on the production of a most informative and readable book, which should provide an incentive to those young men who may feel the urge to mess about in boats at week-ends.

Fleet Air Arm. By Lieutenant-Commander P. K. Kemp. (Herbert Jenkins.) 16s.

This straightforward and very readable account of the British Navy's air component from its inception in 1911 to the present day is much to be welcomed. The earlier phases are given in greater detail than one would, perhaps, expect in a book of this size; but first steps are always interesting and pioneering deserves something more than a man-for-man share of attention. And there is still space for a full and stirring account of the carrier operations of 1939-45 as well as a thoughtful summary of the present situation. Perhaps the outstanding impression of the latter half of the book, apart from the constant theme of enterprise and gallantry, is of the ubiquity of carrier operations both in place and time—for experience showed that resolution could surmount the handicaps of bad weather to an extent that might have been thought impossible.

Of the unsatisfactory inter-war period, Lieutenant-Commander Kemp gives a fair and clear account. Undoubtedly much of the original trouble which led to the creation of the Royal Air Force stemmed from the way in which the Royal Naval Air Service exploited the superiority of the Admiralty organization over that of the War Office in procuring aircraft. And, undoubtedly, the Royal Air Force was inexcusably negligent of the needs of maritime operations in the years from 1918 to the introduction of a naval element into the Fleet Air Arm. But by 1939, although there was still much leeway to make up, flying from carriers was on a firm basis. This was to be proved by the exploits of the next six years, and those exploits saw no lack of co-operation between the two Services wherever they worked together. How extensive and effective this co-operation was, particularly in the Battle of the Atlantic, the author makes clear.

It is a pity that the original, inevitably optimistic, claims of aircraft have not always been checked before being included here. At Matapan, for example, credit is given to the first two strikes for one and three hits respectively on the *Vittorio Veneto*, whereas one hit by the second strike was the only success. There are also some slips. (*Indomitable*, for *Formidable*, on p. 129: Barracudas were British, not American machines: and Martlet and Wildcat were British and American names for the same machine—p. 163.) But these are minor blemishes in a work which, now that the future of aircraft carriers is being a good deal bandied about, is both interesting and thought provoking.

The book is well produced and liberally illustrated with well-selected photographs.

Sea Flight. By Hugh Popham. (William Kimber.) 15s.

This book, like Gaul, is divided into three parts. In the first the author describes his varied experiences under training in the Fleet Air Arm. The story takes the reader from Portsmouth to Luton and thence to Canada and back to England. At last, a fully-fledged pilot and sub-lieutenant, the author is ready to join his first operational squadron.

Part Two, which covers 86 pages, takes the reader to the flight deck of the *Indomitable*, then the newest and largest aircraft carrier afloat. In her, the author served nearly a year, doing 90,000 miles and ranging the oceans from the West Indies to the East. On arrival at Jamaica, the *Indomitable* unfortunately ran aground, a minor disaster that had tragic consequences, for according to Sir Winston Churchill she was to have joined the *Prince of Wales* and *Repulse* in the Far East. How those ships, deprived of air cover, were sunk by Japanese torpedo aircraft off Malaya is too well known to require further comment, beyond that what might have happened had the *Indomitable* been with them is a matter for fascinating speculation. As it was, before the *Indomitable* reached Ceylon, Singapore had fallen.

In April, 1942, the *Indomitable's* aircraft were standing by for instant action against the Japanese in the Indian Ocean. The Japanese Fleet, which out-matched the British by three to one, attacked Ceylon and then sank an old carrier, two cruisers, a destroyer, and 100,000 tons of merchant ships. But the Japanese successes proved only flashes in the pan, for the enemy suffered such rough handling by R.A.F. Hurricanes flown off by the *Indomitable* to Ceylon that he retired eastward without bringing the Eastern Fleet to battle, and never entered the Indian Ocean again.

Soon the *Indomitable* was speeding to Madagascar, where the author took part in attacks on a hangar and on the French sloop *D'Intrecasteaux*; a very mild introduction to war. A few weeks later she was in the heat of battle during the passage of a Malta convoy, "Operation Pedestal". At the end of the first day the author, running out of petrol, crash-landed on the *Victorious* and spent the remainder of the battle as an unwilling spectator. The *Indomitable* herself was heavily hit and eventually docked for repairs in the Mersey. Shortly afterwards, the author was involved in a mid-air collision, fractured his spine, and spent some months in hospital.

In Part Three, the author describes his experiences in the aircraft carriers *Illustrious*, *Campania*, and *Striker*. In the *Illustrious*, in which he took part in the Salerno landing, the uncertain flying of the Barracudas and poor deck-landing qualities of the Seafires emphasized the stiff price paid by the Fleet Air Arm for its twenty years' servitude to the R.A.F., an experiment stigmatized by Lord Cunningham as 'a ghastly failure'. In the *Campania* and *Striker*, the author acted as Deck Landing Control Officer, and then finished up at an office desk at the Admiralty.

This is an absorbing personal record, well written and illustrated. It has an excellent track chart but, alas, no index.

Green Beret, Red Star. By Anthony Crockett. (Eyre and Spottiswoode.) 18s.

The title of this book signifies the green beret of the Royal Marine Commandos and the red star worn by the Communist forces in Malaya. Based on the experience of a serving officer, though not specially designed for Service readers, it gives a good description

of the campaign as seen from unit level and contains much of interest in connection with guerrilla warfare in difficult country afflicted by a trying climate. The author also succeeds in giving a clear picture of the lives of those involved in this protracted struggle and of the fine spirit of the Royal Marines.

A brief outline of how the present situation developed is given in the first chapter, and the organization and functions of the forces directed by the Communist Party are described. These forces consist of, first, *The Malayan Races Liberation Army*, loosely formed into paid, armed, and uniformed units; secondly, the *Min Yuen*, plain clothes workers living in towns and villages; and thirdly, the *Lie Ton Ten*, or 'killer squads'. Control by fear is the basis of the Communists' methods. Secrecy is maintained by intimidation; information as to the activities of the troops and police is obtained by the same means. Like most guerrillas, our opponents in Malaya are extremely mobile, know the country intimately, and make the best use of its features. Their chief difficulty is supply and communication with their small, scattered units in the deep jungle. This is one of the tasks of *Min Yuen*.

The troops, hampered by space, topography, and climate suffer, as is usual in such operations, from the absence of a definite objective for which the enemy must stand and fight, and in default of this from lack of timely and accurate information. The author has a good deal to say about the importance of 'information,' which is handled by the police, and comments on the frustration and wasted effort caused if it is 'cold' or inaccurate.

This book, to which the Chief of the Imperial General Staff contributes an appreciative foreword, is a heartening record of devotion to duty. It should enable the reader to grasp why the campaign is so long-drawn-out and why the results gained seem so meagre in comparison with the effort expended.

Enemy Submarine. By Wolfgang Frank. (William Kimber.) 15s.

This book tells once again the story of Gunther Prien, captain of the German submarine *U47*, whose name will ever be associated with his great exploit in sinking the British battleship *Royal Oak* in Scapa Flow in October, 1939. It is based on Prien's own diaries and on the personal observations of the author, Wolfgang Frank, who as a special U-boat correspondent for the German Government accompanied Prien on a six weeks' patrol in the North Atlantic, the last from which *U47* returned.

Born in Lubeck in 1908, the son of a judge, Prien spent his early years in that Baltic city and in Leipzig. His first sea service was as a boy in the German s.s. *Hamburg*, in which he was shipwrecked, for the *Hamburg* was lost in a winter gale off the Irish coast. In January, 1933, he joined the German Navy as an ordinary seaman, but by 1934 was an officer in the German submarine *U26*. After serving in *U26* in Spanish waters during the Spanish Civil War, he was given command of *U47* in 1938, and in her rapidly established his reputation as an able submarine commander.

Prien's U-boat was one of 17 that sailed to their war stations in the Atlantic shortly before the outbreak of war in 1939. On 5th September, two days after war was declared, she sank a British steamer, one of the first U-boat victims of the war, and during the next two days accounted for two more. *U47* continued her patrol, but no further ships appeared. On returning home Prien was decorated with the Iron Cross, Second Class.

On 8th October, *U47* again put to sea, this time to attack the British naval forces inside Scapa Flow. Late on the 13th, she broke into the Flow through a gap in the defences of Kirk Sound, fouling a blockship on the way in. Once inside, Prien sighted the battleship *Royal Oak* and seaplane carrier *Pegasus*. At 12.58 a.m. on the 14th, he fired three torpedoes at the *Pegasus* under the false impression that she was the battlecruiser *Repulse*; missing her but scoring a hit on the bow of the *Royal Oak*. Eighteen minutes later he let go three more at the *Royal Oak* herself. Two crashing explosions sounded the death knell of the

battleship and, with all tubes empty, *U47* escaped from the Flow through Kirk Sound almost without incident. In the *Royal Oak*, 24 officers and 809 men perished. For his unique exploit Prien received the Knight's Cross of the Iron Cross.

Between November, 1939, and February, 1941, Prien carried out a number of patrols and maintained his reputation as a U-boat ace, sinking thousands of tons of Allied shipping. Then in February, 1941, he sailed for the last time. On 8th March, *U47* was sunk by the destroyer *Wolverine* while attacking a British convoy. There were no survivors.

This book can be recommended. It is well printed and illustrated, but the track chart of *U47*'s attack on the *Royal Oak* on page 49 could be clearer, and there is no index.

The Mathematical Practitioners of Tudor and Stuart England. By E. G. R. Taylor. (Cambridge University Press.) 55s.

Many of those who have had the task and the satisfaction of determining the position of a small ship out of sight of land must sometimes have given a thought to the struggles of their predecessors in even smaller ships who first essayed to cross the oceans. Without sextant or chronometer and with only rudimentary forerunners of the Nautical Almanac, how did these seamen of the XVIth and XVIIth Centuries find their way? Despite much striving, it was as yet impossible to determine the longitude, except on the rare occasion of a lunar eclipse, and even then the answer was the merest approximation. But something could be done about latitude. By astrolabe, cross-staff, back-staff, and nocturnal, altitudes of the sun and pole star could be observed; and by observing the bearing of sunrise or sunset, the course could be corrected for the variation of the compass. Much was at hazard, but ships could as a rule "run their easting (or westing) down" with a good chance of making the right landfall sooner or later.

In this admirable work of research and scholarship, Professor Taylor has brought together the stories of all those mathematical practitioners of Tudor and Stuart days who made this possible, including as they did theoreticians, teachers, instrument makers, and seamen, or any or all of these in combination. There are great names among them—John Dee, doyen of Elizabethan mathematicians; Chancellor and Davis, the explorers; Flamsteed, the first Astronomer Royal, and Halley, his successor; Tompion, the clock-maker; "and above all the incomparable Mr. Newton"—but there was also a host of men less well-known, some of them exquisite instrument makers, who contributed much to the safety of ships at sea and the increasing accuracy of navigation. Nearly 600 in all are listed here, and the general story of their attempts and achievements is given in the first half of the book. This is followed by a short biography of each and a bibliography of more than 600 books and pamphlets.

The general story is an absorbing one, conveying as it does, despite the complexity of many names, the fascination of navigational problems in the days when so little was known and everything seemed possible. Increasingly during the XVIIth Century concern was with the problems of longitude, and by 1700, after attempts to connect longitude with magnetic variation had proved fruitless, it had been stated as: "Given some real Phenomenon in the Heavens which is tied at one certain moment of Absolute Time, and is alike visible in divers Parts of the Earth, we refer this one point of Absolute Time to the ordinary time of several place respectively, and so . . . come to know the Difference of Meridians." It was on these lines that finding the longitude by lunar distance was developed in the XVIIIth Century, and retained, despite its unreliability, for another hundred years. But it was the seemingly less likely solution afforded by a chronometer that could retain its accuracy at sea for months on end that gave the final answer to the problem. This, however, as Professor Taylor notes, is outside the scope of his book, which ends at the death of Queen Anne. John Harrison was then only 22 years old, and there were many years of patient work and experiment ahead of him before the aim of two centuries was at last achieved.

ARMY

The First Commonwealth Division. The Story of British Commonwealth Land Forces in Korea, 1950-1953. By Brigadier C. N. Barclay, C.B.E., D.S.O. (Gale and Polden.) 25s.

This work, the author of which has had access to official documents, is intended to fill the inevitable gap before an official history is published. The narrative begins with an account of the early fighting in Korea before this "unique, and famous, Division" was formed, and carries the story up to the end of 1953.

Divided into four parts, to which are added a number of useful and interesting appendices, the book is well arranged. The first part deals briefly with the characteristics of the theatre of war, the background to the campaign, and the North Koreans' invasion. The second describes the operations carried out by the Commonwealth troops before the formation of the Division. The two Brigade Groups, 27th, and later the 29th, seem to have been in great demand for important tasks and to have been switched frequently from one United States formation to another. Both fought with skill, courage, and resourcefulness throughout the most difficult period of the campaign, and each played a notable part in defeating the enemy Spring offensive of 1951.

The third part describes the formation of the Division in July, 1951, and how the difficulties involved in the organization and command of such an unparalleled formation were overcome. The offensive carried out in October, 1951, at the end of which the Division was expected to hold too wide a front (20,000 yards), the subsequent trench warfare, and the final flare up—the battle of "The Hook" in May, 1953—are well narrated. Some pertinent remarks on raids and patrols are interpolated.

Part four deals in some detail with the system of command and administration, also with the supporting arms and services. The final chapter, "The Campaign in Retrospect", is of considerable interest; it includes some comments on the limitations of air power and the problem of the administrative 'tail'. In the author's opinion, "the infantryman, supported by the artilleryman, dominated the battlefield." There is no doubt that the experience of Korea emphasizes the ever-present need for highly trained, mobile, and hardy footsoldiers.

The author has succeeded in giving a clear, concise account of the part played by the Commonwealth troops, and a good outline of the supporting operations of the naval and air forces. Changes in the order of battle are carefully recorded, the background is adequate, and the conditions in which the troops lived and fought are described. The volume is illustrated, is provided with three folding maps, and contains a number of sketch-maps in the text designed to show situations difficult to describe briefly in words. Besides being of interest to those personally concerned with the campaign, this work is valuable as an authentic account of the operations and the conditions in which they took place.

His Country was the World. By Charles Beatty. (Chatto and Windus.) 21s.

In this very well written and most interesting biography of General Gordon, the author has set out to discover the real man behind the façade. In the end, however, he leaves us with a picture that many in a more materialistic age will find hard to understand. Gordon's early formative years and home life are dismissed in five pages, and we are left with the impression that it was his eldest sister Augusta who was the main influence during this period of his life and that it was she who implemented into the growing boy the "dismal doctrine of salvation through suffering."

The first portrait we get of Gordon is at the age of 22, when as a young officer in the Royal Engineers he was serving in the Crimea. At that time while possessing strong religious beliefs, he was, according to his contemporaries, sincere and efficient with considerable personal charm.

Thereafter, the author follows his career through its three main phases of China, Gravesend, and the Sudan. Of these he rightly devotes the most space to China and his account of the operations of the "Ever Victorious Army" is clear and well told, while the impact of these strange events on Gordon's character is well assessed.

After his return from China in 1865 and during his time at Gravesend, Gordon seems to have dedicated himself to fight slavery and all forms of poverty, starvation, and graft, but his utter loneliness and his inability to work with his equals soon drove him to seek further service abroad. He was determined to fight for his principles and to do so his country had to become the world.

So the story moves to the Sudan of 1874-1879, where, as the successful result of his administration, Gordon can claim to have cut off the slave dealers in their strongholds and to have made all the people love him. But the long years spent both here and in China, virtually as a dictator, had had their effect, and officially he was looked upon as being inconsistent and insubordinate, since he could see no other view but his own.

The next four years were therefore probably the least satisfactory in Gordon's career and they are well covered by the author. A brief return to China led to an official reprimand, and an attempt to serve the Government of Cape Colony against the Basutos ended in failure. Finally, he was forbidden to serve the King of the Belgians in his anti-slavery campaign in the Congo and so forced to resign his commission.

The past thus drove him to accept his final mission and he returned to Khartoum in 1884. There, however, he was no longer completely free. He had to carry out the instructions issued by Sir Evelyn Baring in fulfilment of the Government's policy for the evacuation of the Sudan. Each man disliked the other and, in addition, Gordon fatally misjudged the personality of his relentless enemy the Mahdi. Both were fanatics, and in the end their unshakeable beliefs "made the sacrifice, which made the hero."

From the Danube to the Yalu. By General Mark W. Clark. (Harrap.) 21s.

General Mark Clark, on appointment as United States Commander-in-Chief, Far East, arrived in Tokyo on 7th May, 1952. His new command embraced the forces of the United Nations Organization then engaged in Korea, including the British Commonwealth Division.

By that time, Japan had regained her sovereignty and the armistice discussions at Panmunjom had reached a critical stage. They were not concluded till July, 1953, and it is with the events of these 15 months that he deals in his new book. The General needs no introduction to British readers, and if this work as a whole lacks design and editing, it tells a story of vital importance to all concerned in the future of U.N.O., and it is the first published authoritative account of what warfare with an eastern Communist State really means. After a brief introduction, in which he tells of his first meetings with Communist soldiers and negotiators in 1945, he turns to the Korean scene and deals with many very interesting subjects.

On the stabilized and heavily fortified Korean front, the forces of U.N.O. were opposed by about 1,200,000 well equipped Chinese 'volunteers', with all their bases and airfields north of the Yalu river. Though no heavy reinforcement of the front seemed likely to bring the military victory he considered so essential, he was disturbed at the way in which the war had developed into one which neither side was "trying to win", though the casualty wastage rates remained high. Of the 53 member States of U.N.O. which had endorsed the decision to take military action to check the North Korean aggression, only about one-third had supplied combat elements, and the Eighth Army was principally composed of American and South Korean Divisions. From this he warns us that American man-power is not inexhaustible, and that only by co-operating fully can the nations of the free world hope to match the Communists in this respect. Politically he had, of course, many limitations to contend with, not the least of which

was that which forbade him to use his all-powerful air forces to strike at targets north of the Yalu.

He devotes much space to the subject of prisoners of war and brings to notice the way in which the Communists kept in touch with their prisoners in our hands and the use they made of them. By inciting them to riot and mutiny, they not only caused the withdrawal from the front of extra guard units, but used the results achieved for propaganda purposes. They temporarily 'lost face' when about 90,000 of these prisoners refused to return 'home', but insisted that they should be forced to do so. Of the U.N.O. prisoners in Communist hands, nearly 30,000 were murdered, including 11,622 soldiers. The appalling conditions under which these prisoners were forced to live and the awful atrocities and 'brain washing' techniques carried out upon them seem, however, to have had less effect upon those that survived than might have been expected.

Psychological warfare, at which the Communists were adepts, plays a leading part in this form of cold war, and he explains the uses they made of the long-drawn-out talks at Panmunjom and of the way they engineered their accusation that the Allies were using germ warfare. The latter, however, learned quickly, and the results they achieved from their offer of 100,000 dollars for a MIG fighter and from their policy of planned air strikes were not inconsiderable. Their use of partisans was also far superior to that of the Communists.

The General considers that Japan has no illusions about the menace of Communism and thinks that she may well be ready to retain occupation forces until she can ensure her own security from this menace. He has nothing but praise for the personnel of the 16 R.O.K. Divisions, which formed the bulk of his forces, but he must have found President Syngman Rhee a sore trial at times.

His final advice to all who may have to deal with Communists is to "get tougher faster" than they.

General Dean's Story. Told to William L. Worden by Major-General F. Dean. (Weidenfeld and Nicolson.) 18s.

General Dean, who commanded the first American division to go to Korea after the outbreak of the war there, was cut off during the early North Korean advance and eventually captured after some weeks of wandering in an attempt to regain the Allied lines. He remained for the next three years as a prisoner of war in the hands of the Communists until he was finally released at Panmunjom under the terms of the Armistice.

This book is the record of his wanderings, his capture, and his three years of captivity. Its main interest lies in the General's recital of the frequent attempts to indoctrinate him into the Communist philosophy, the perpetual refusal to accept no for an answer, and the rather pathetic attempts to achieve conformity with the Communist doctrine by promises of better treatment. It says much for General Dean's powers of resistance that, even when physically weak and run down, he resisted strenuously all such attempts. In his particular case, being the senior prisoner of war, the pressure on him was considerably greater than on other prisoners.

The book is written in a somewhat colloquial style, which makes for easy reading, though sometimes, perhaps, giving an impression of levity where none is meant. Yet General Dean has much to say about this little known aspect of the war in Korea which is of real interest, and his story certainly fills in some of the gaps in our knowledge of the Communist effort in that particular war.

It is a book that will repay the reading, although in some respects a little disappointing in its general treatment of the theme. General Dean certainly has a story to tell, and on the whole tells it remarkably well. But it is in some ways a pity that the approach to the story is journalistic. The final result seems to lack both reality and authority.

A Diary of the Crimea. By George Palmer Evelyn. Edited by Cyril Falls. (Gerald Duckworth.) 12s. 6d.

Mr. G. P. Evelyn, an ex-rifleman and an intelligent, active man of leisure, wrote this excellent account of his experiences from December, 1853, to January, 1855. The book first describes a perfectly unofficial visit to the Danube, when Evelyn had a gorgeous time watching Cossacks and Bashi-Bazouks "puttering away at each other, with vast noise and smoke, and little execution as usual." From this happy pursuit (quite considerably bored, however, by constant card playing) he was recalled to England for the annual training of the Royal Surrey Militia, in which he held a commission. By the end of July, 1854, he was back in Constantinople. The most interesting part of the book follows, when, with his old comrades of the 1st Battalion, The Rifle Brigade, but still quite unofficially, Evelyn landed in the Crimea and saw the Alma, Sebastopol, Balaklava, and Inkerman. He then went cheerfully off as a staff officer with the Turkish forces to Eupatoria for a few weeks before obtaining two months' leave "to visit England on business." He never returned, for his militia regiment was embodied and the Government unsportingly demanded his presence with it.

Evelyn obviously regarded the whole war as staged for his own personal entertainment. He went where he wished, and was equally ready to go foraging for his friends or to gallop alongside "the splendid Chasseurs d'Afrique" on their way to the field of Balaklava. During the worst of the fighting at Inkerman, he spent his time escorting wounded comrades to their tents and taking pot-shots from his horse at the Russians with muskets borrowed from nearby soldiers.

The style is rapid and vivacious. Anything and everything is tumbled in: rumours, weather notes, Rigoletto "execrably sung" one night in Constantinople, a pair of warm gloves sold for 33s. on 31st October, 1854, his opinion that the Light Brigade "Divisional General and the highly extolled and amiable Brigadier ought both to be shot", and the charge of one penny for being rowed across Malta harbour. There is no index. There are some interesting additional letters and papers; and an introduction, essential because of the author's unorthodox nature, is provided by Professor Cyril Falls, who has unobtrusively edited the book.

AIR

Faith, Hope, and Charity. By Kenneth Poolman. (William Kimber.) 15s.

The three obsolescent Gladiator fighters, which were the only air defence of Malta when Italy declared war in June, 1940, became known as Faith, Hope, and Charity. They were manned by a scratch collection of volunteer pilots who happened to be in the island. These men, who were not fighter pilots, were unabashed by the prospect of fighting the whole of the *Regia Aeronautica* in three old fighters. For two months they sustained the air battle against the Italians without reinforcement, save for a few Hurricanes, and won victories in the face of apparently impossible odds. They were gallantly supported by the ground staff, who worked day and night, with untiring perseverance and skill, under constant bombing, to keep the sorely tried aircraft in serviceable condition.

Perhaps the greatest value of their achievement lay in its inspiration and encouragement to the garrison and civilian population of Malta. As the author says, in referring to their first victory: "The effect of the destruction of an enemy aircraft in full view of the people of an island which everyone, friend and foe alike, except a small handful of men, had thought to be defenceless, was enormous. The confidence of those engaged in the defence of Malta soared, and the morale of the civilian population rocketed to a height from which it never again descended."

Mussolini, who was fond of exhorting his Fascists to emulate the glorious deeds of the ancient Romans, may have remembered how Horatius, Lartius, and Herminius held the bridge, and noted the uncomfortable parallel with the three Gladiators and their pilots.

The epic of Faith, Hope, and Charity falls within a small compass and a relatively short space of time, although one of the Gladiators and one of the original band of pilots was still operating in March, 1941, at the height of the German *blitzkrieg* on Malta. Kenneth Poolman goes on to trace, in outline, the story of the island until the siege was finally raised in November, 1942, after the battle of El Alamein and the pursuit of Rommel along the North African coast. He has, clearly, been at pains to collect his material and tells a noble story with feeling. Moreover, he has an eye for the beauty and the interest of the place where it all happened, and his book is lightened by asides on the historic background and the characteristics of this lovely island.

For those not familiar with the geography of Malta a map showing the airfields is included and the book is also illustrated with photographs. In the front of the book, fittingly enough, the first photograph depicts the Gladiator Faith, the sole survivor of the three. She was presented to the people of Malta by the Royal Air Force on 3rd September, 1943.

The Last Battle. By Peter Henn. (William Kimber.) 15s.

Peter Henn was a German fighter pilot. He entered the war in 1943 when the Allies landed in Sicily, and it ended for him some two years later when he crashed, badly wounded, in no man's land between the Russian and German lines in Czechoslovakia. He returned to his country in 1947 from a Russian prison camp having lost both his legs. This is the intensely matter-of-fact, sombre, rather cynical account of his experiences until that last crash. The style of writing is abrupt and vivid, and the translation appears to have been most ably done. The book is illustrated with photographs.

Save for passing references to his family and his girl living in his bombed home town, Henn confines himself strictly to an account of his day-to-day thoughts and actions as a fighter pilot in those years of Germany's decline and defeat. His Group Commander once said of him in a report: "He thinks too much in crises." The thoughts, as they emerge from this book, are almost entirely taken up with his task in the air, with the inferiority of his aircraft compared with those of the Allies, and with the overwhelming superiority of the Americans.

From time to time, Henn makes bitter and contemptuous comments on the staff officers and leaders of the *Luftwaffe*. His story of a powdered, scented Goering making a three-hour speech of criticism and complaint to the pilots of the Group to which he belonged goes far to explain his tone of discouragement.

"Goering ended with this passage:

'Kinder, . . . I want results. I shall send the first man who is reported as a coward before a court-martial. Unless we have victories in the air we shall lose the war.'

" . . . That was the only thing he really wanted to say, and we all knew it. . . . A shudder ran through his audience. . . . I could not help whispering: 'Good luck to you, gentlemen'."

The picture which emerges from a book written, no doubt, when the author's memories were coloured by his subsequent grievous personal misfortune, is of a man resigned to inevitable defeat. Yet he was clearly a skilful and daring pilot. He had his full share of combat experience in Italy, the Balkans, and Germany in the last debacle. He persisted in returning to operational flying after being grounded following a bad crash in Rumania. It does not appear likely that he was ever an ardent Nazi. He conveys the impression of a man both sensitive and intelligent with as little interest in politics as the average British fighter pilot.

Without, it would seem, being fortunate enough to have faith or inspiration to uphold him, Henn, nevertheless, did his duty to the bitter end. For that reason this story from the enemy, apart from its own intrinsic interest, deserves to be read with respect.

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- THE MIDDLE EAST IN THE WAR. Survey of International Affairs, 1939-46. By George Kirk. Medium 8vo. 511 pages. (Oxford University Press, 1954.) 42s.
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